



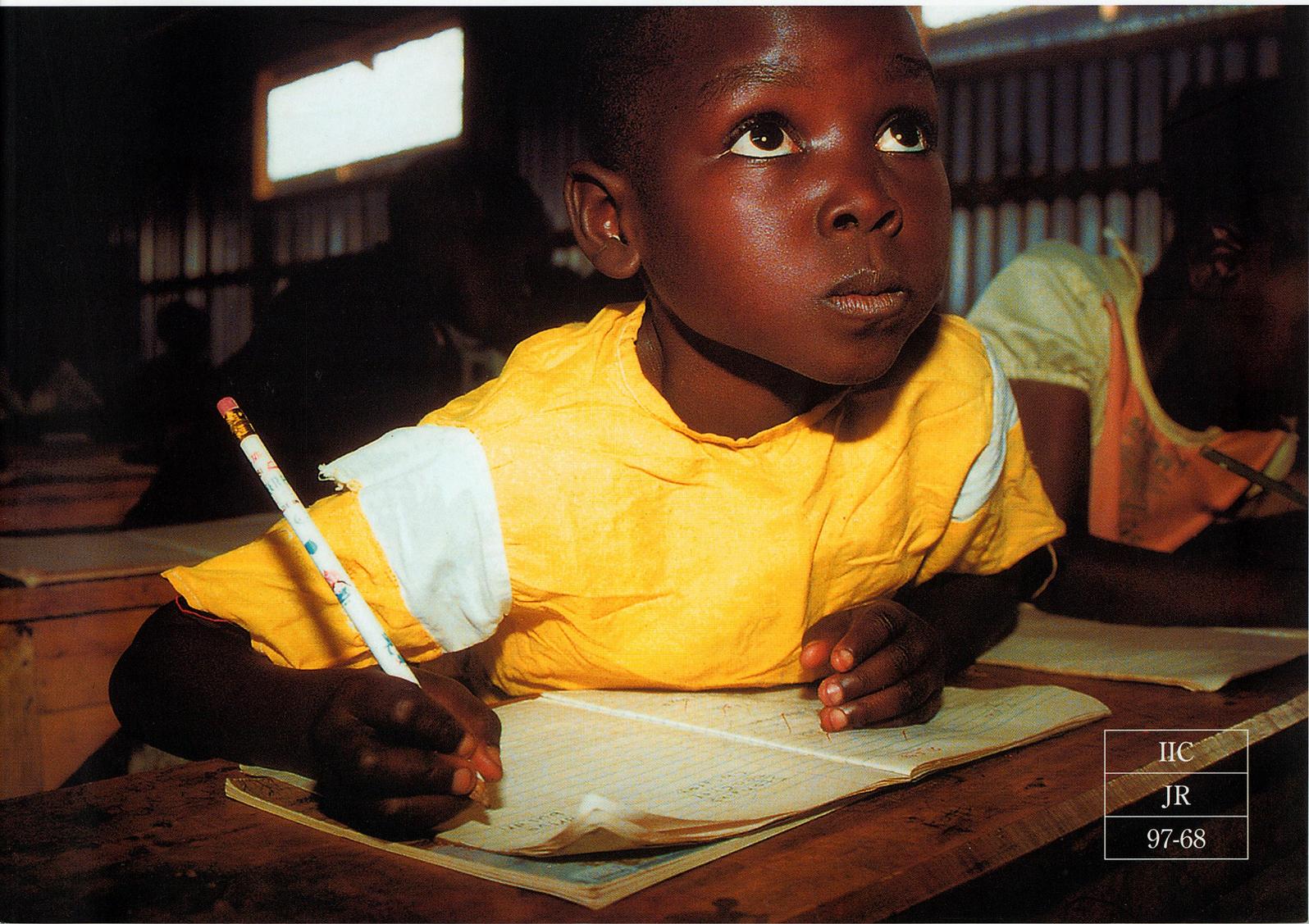
# International Seminar on Basic Education and Development Assistance in Sub-Saharan Africa

December, 1997



**JAPAN**  
Official Development Assistance

Institute for International Cooperation  
Japan International Cooperation Agency



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**International Seminar  
on  
Basic Education and Development  
Assistance in Sub-Saharan Africa**

**Institute for International Cooperation  
Japan International Cooperation Agency**

<Affiliated organizations and titles of the participants are based on those used for the March 1997.>

## FOREWORD

The Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) held the International Seminar on Basic Education and Development Assistance in Sub-Saharan Africa, 1997, supported by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture on March 7, 1997. This report contains the keynote speeches, case study reports, and discussions from the seminar.

Since their independence in the 1960s and the 70s, Sub-Saharan African countries have invested in the expansion of the modern education system. Primary school enrollment, however, has stagnated and even decreased in many countries with the decline of public investment in education sector under the macroeconomic crisis in the 80s, while the population growth rate remains high. Besides, some studies indicate that the quality of education has been declining in some countries rather than improving.

The Government of Japan has strengthened its assistance for expansion of education in developing countries, in line with the declaration adopted in the World Conference on Education for All in 1990. And as one of the Organization members of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC), Japan has committed itself to cooperate under a global partnership with the international development community to realize universal primary education by the year 2015, one of the targets set by the member countries of DAC in its so-called new development strategy in 1996. And also as for the development of Africa, the Japanese Minister for Foreign Affairs announced a plan to play active roles in education in Africa, mainly for the enhancement of primary education at the 9th UNCTAD meeting held in April 1996.

Until now the aid for basic education by JICA has been constructions of primary school by grant aid programs. In the recent situation, JICA wrestled against the report of the Aid Study Committee on Education and Development commissioned by JICA in 1993, that recommended, among others, to improve the regional distribution of Japan's ODA to Sub-Saharan Africa and to stress aid for basic education as a priority area. Study teams have visited several African countries to formulate new projects in the basic education sector, and research projects are being conducted for better planning, design and implementation of the projects for basic education.

The objective of this seminar is to review, together with experts working in education development in Africa in the international and bilateral organizations, the present situation of basic education in Sub-Saharan African countries; to discuss the major development issues regarding access to and quality of basic education in Sub-Saharan Africa; to discuss the roles of African governments and international and bilateral donors as well as ways to enhance their mutual coordination and cooperation for the attainment of universal primary education in Sub-Saharan Africa; and thus, to contribute to more effective and efficient implementation of Japan's development assistance for basic education in Sub-Saharan Africa.

The discussions contains informative and suggestive points, and the enthusiastic question

and answer sessions with the audience also gave rise to the orientation of the basic education and various problems and strategies to assistance for the Sub-Saharan Africa, which was one of the great achievements of this seminar.

I would like to take this opportunity to express my deepest gratitude to people of all the organizations that supported this seminar, and to all the panelists and participants who made this seminar a success.

December 1997

Teizo Igarashi  
Managing Director  
Institute for International Cooperation  
Japan International Cooperation Agency

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## OPENING ADDRESS

**Mr. Teruo Kijima**

Vice President

charge of general affairs and planning

Japan International Cooperation Agency

Good afternoon, ladies and gentlemen. Thank you for taking time from your very busy schedules to attend today's seminar. It's my pleasure to say a few words on behalf of JICA to welcome you to this International Seminar on Basic Education and Development Assistant in Sub-Saharan Africa. I should like to start with expressing my gratitude to our keynote speaker, Miss Aïcha Bah Diallo, UNESCO's director of basic education, as well as expressing my gratitude to the members of the panel. At the same time, I should like to express my thanks to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Ministry of Education for supporting this seminar.

In March 1990, a conference was held in Thailand, a conference entitled "The World Conference of Education For All", and at that time, a declaration was adopted, as I am sure you know about it. In the declaration it says that in order to survive in this world as well as to participate in social development in a self-reliant fashion, one needs basic knowledge, technology, values and attitudes, and that the aim of basic education is to satisfy the needs for these types of learning. At the same time, basic education serves as the foundation for human resources that is needed for building society. At the same time, basic education is the rights granted to every individual. When there is no foundation for basic education, when individuals rights to receive an education is not guaranteed, you will not be able to achieve human-centered development or people-centered development, which the Japanese government as well as governments of all other countries are now aiming to achieve.

Today's theme is Sub-Saharan African countries. In this part of the world, we know that in the 1980s, because of the falling prices of commodities which were their main export items, as well as because of the accumulated debts, these countries encountered very severe economic crisis. And in order to overcome this crisis, the World Bank introduced the so-called structural adjustment programs and policies, which required these countries to cut down on their expenditures in a very major way. So there was this severe cut in their expenditures and budget. Because of this economic crisis, and because of the cut down on their expenses, in many Sub-Saharan countries, their education budget was severely reduced, and at the same time, many families found it impossible to send their children to school because of extreme poverty.

The Sub-Saharan African countries is one of the only regions in the world where the primary school enrollment rates dropped between the 1980s and the 1990s, and still in Sub-Saharan countries, women's enrollment rates continue to remain the lowest in the world. Also it's been pointed out that it's necessary to improve the quality of education in terms of schools, teachers, teaching materials, and so forth. The expansion of educational opportunities as well as the

expansion of basic education by offering fair educational opportunities, and also securing quality education — these are some of the most urgent agenda [items] for Sub-Saharan countries.

Based on these understandings and perceptions, the Japanese government made an announcement at the fourth UNCTAD meeting held in April last year. Foreign Minister Ikeda who attended that meeting pledged that Japan will be contributing an amount of \$100 million in the coming the years in the form of education assistance in order to contribute towards the human resources development in African countries. This is what is known as the Plan for Human Resources Development in Africa.

Also in May, last year, at the DAC, the Development Assistance Committee of OECD, the new DAC development strategy was adopted. This is a new strategy for the 21st century. This new development strategy was adopted, and one of the aims of this new strategy is that by the year 2015, we will aim for universal basic education for all countries in the world.

JICA is an implementing organization of the Japanese government's ODA policies, and as such, based on the Japanese government policy as well as the policies of the donor community, we believe that one of our mandate and mission is to implement those policies for international cooperation, and that also we have to define the aims of [our] efforts more clearly in the future. JICA's cooperation in Sub-Saharan countries, particularly in the area of education, should be improved and strengthened. We feel this very keenly. That being the case, as far as JICA is concerned, we have taken some new steps. For example, in 1993 we had a study group on development assistance for education in development, and we have been doing many research activities and formulation of projects for Sub-Saharan countries. But frankly speaking, we must admit that our knowledge and expertise and experiences about basic education in Sub-Saharan countries is not really sufficient. We would like of course to learn from the experiences of others and to also gain new experiences for ourselves, while at the same time making best use of our strength, JICA's strength, to areas and methods. We feel that in this effort, it is particularly important for us to strengthen partnerships in cooperation with other donor countries and international organizations.

Today's seminar, we believe, is going to give us an opportunity to do so. It is one such forum or venue. And so, in today's seminar, we will be having some reports, presentations given by JICA members on some of the projects that JICA has been implementing in Sub-Saharan countries, while at the same time, we will be telling you some of the difficulties that we have encountered, or problems we have encountered while implementing our project. We will also be listening to the presentations of the panelists who have experiences in educational development in Sub-Saharan African countries for many, many years. I am sure that we will be able to learn a great deal from their experience and insight, and we hope that JICA will be able to make best use of these insights that will be presented today. We hope that today's seminar will help to step up our efforts for assistance in the educational field to Sub-Saharan countries. Thank you very much.

## 1. KEYNOTE SPEECH



# **Basic Education in Sub-Saharan Africa - its History and Prospects**

**Aïcha Bah Diallo**

Director, Division of Basic Education  
UNESCO

Basic education has always been a central concern of the African peoples who recognize that it constitutes the basis of all socio-economic development. The difficulties that today confront many regions of the world are, in part, caused by a breakdown in the systems established to provide basic education. This is especially true in the Sub-Saharan African countries whose educational history reflects several influences and where the emergence of education systems adapted to the development needs dates back, in most countries, only to the 1960s and 1970s.

One can divide the educational history of Sub-Saharan Africa into three eras:

- the pre-colonial period;
- the colonial period;
- the period since independence.

I shall look briefly at the main developments in each of these periods before turning to the present situation. I will, in particular, examine the case of Guinea and formulate a number of recommendations aimed at illuminating the needs and guiding the development of education in Africa.

## **I. HISTORY**

### **A. The Pre-colonial Period**

Traditionally, education in Africa was considered a concern of the entire society. It was viewed in a global perspective, not as a set of specializations, and understood as a collective responsibility. The characteristics of traditional education, according to Paul Désalmand<sup>1</sup> are:

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<sup>1</sup>

Histoire de l'éducation en Côte d'Ivoire - Des origines à la Conférence de Brazzaville, Abidjan CEDA. 1983. 456 p.

- 1 . Education is given everywhere;
- 2 . Education is given at any time;
- 3 . Education is given by all members of the community;
- 4 . Education is closely linked to the environment;
- 5 . Education is directly related to the needs of society;
- 6 . An individual's integration into production occurs early in life;
- 7 . Training not only develops skills, but also promotes a sense of belonging to and serving the community;
- 8 . Education concerns everyone;
- 9 . Education has a comprehensive character;
10. Society aims at preserving an equilibrium;
11. Magic plays a fundamental role;
12. The religious and the sacred are present in all aspects of life;
13. Parents play an important part in the education of their children;
14. Aging is perceived as a positive development;
15. Relations between people are personal relations;
16. Models of education and society are developed by the groups concerned in their own languages;
17. Knowledge is transmitted orally.

In the traditional context, education gave the child a sense of security, belonging, identity and accomplishment. It was not only a process of preparation, but also a process of participation in the life and work of his or her group or community.

## **B. The Colonial Period**

The first schools implanted in Africa were those of the missionaries and represented a veritable sub-system of foreign education. They aimed at training an indigenous elite, spreading the Christian religion and, in general, promoting the process of colonization. Thus, in the colonial period, education lost its sense of functionality, of serving the African community.

Colonial schools were based on western models and taught by expatriate teachers without any knowledge of the local environment. Indeed, education was deliberately emptied of African content. Colonial education closely reflected the situation in the 'home country' - e.g., the struggle in 19th century France between religious and secular or laic schools - but took little, if any, account of African realities, the world in which their students lived. Moreover, only a very limited part of the population had the opportunity to attend school.

According to statistics published by the World Bank, the gross rate of enrolment in primary education in Africa in 1960, near the end of the colonial era, was 36% as compared to 67% for Asia and 73% for Latin America. This average, however, concealed large disparities between territories, urban and rural areas, sexes and religious and ethnic groups. For the French-speaking territories, the overall gross enrolment ratio was 38% (50% for the Belgium colonies and 31% for French colonies); for the English-run colonies it was 40%. The rate of illiteracy was over 90% for Sub-Saharan Africa as a whole.

Those who completed school obtained jobs in the colonial administration and were accorded a privileged social status. This type of training, elitist by its very nature and design, resulted in a fascination with and subjugation to Western values. Indeed, Africans were being asked to accept a system of education that was systematically destroying the very values that traditional education had sought to promote and preserve.

It is also important to note the influence of Islam on education in Africa during the Colonial era. Islam's influence dates back to the Middle Ages and was particularly marked by the rapid development of Koranic schools, designed to teach theology, in the 17th and 18th centuries. To this date, Islamic education continues to exercise an important influence in many parts of the continent. Islamic schools are rooted in and sustained by the community. Efforts are underway in a number of countries to broaden the curriculum of the Islamic schools in order to include a wider range of basic education programmes.

### **C. The Period of Independence**

At independence, Africa inherited from its colonial past an education system poorly adapted to its needs and realities. The first order of business for many independent countries was to change this situation. Beginning in May 1961, with the Addis Ababa Conference organized by UNESCO, the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa set about in a spirit of high enthusiasm the reform of their education systems as part of a plan to achieve socio-economic development and cultural liberation.

A far-reaching revision of programmes and methods of instruction was undertaken. The newly independent countries, with the support of the international community, undertook major efforts to promote education and, indeed, achieved impressive quantitative results.

They devoted nearly \$3.8 billion dollars of domestic public funds to education in 1970, \$6.3 billion in 1975 and over \$10 billion in 1980. Thereafter, this level of expenditure, which could not be sustained, declined to around \$8.9 billion. International support - bi-lateral, multi-lateral and private - reached a level of about \$9.5 billion per year in the 1980s.

Basing themselves on the impressive initial results achieved, the African States considered that the universalization of basic education could be easily accomplished. It was with this goal in view that the African education systems developed rapidly.

The system of education, however, was that imposed by colonial rule. The division of education into primary, secondary and tertiary levels was maintained. Universities were established and flourished in nearly all countries. In many countries, the national civil services undertook to employ all university graduates. Unfortunately, in the 1970s, economic conditions deteriorated as did public funding for education which provoked a serious crisis within the education system.

A study by the World Bank reveals that between 1960 and 1983 the number of students in Africa increased at a rate of 9% per year, twice as rapidly as in Asia and three times as rapidly as in Latin America [see *Table I in annex*]. At the primary level, the gross enrolment ratio increased from 36% to 75% in just over 20 years. It was during this era that the school opened its doors to sectors of the population that had previously been excluded from education. During this period, the African countries also made great strides in the construction of schools and in the training of teachers. Parallel to these efforts, enormous literacy campaigns were launched, increasing the adult literacy rate from 9% to 42%. Adult education and non-formal education also flourished.

Of equal importance, at the primary level the content of education was Africanized in many countries - i.e. reformed in order that its context reflect the African situation and environment and respond to the needs of Africans. In 21 countries, national languages replaced English, French and Portuguese as the language of instruction. In brief, the school was transformed in a manner such that it was no longer foreign to African students and for this very reason became more attractive to them.

In general, the English-speaking countries were in advance of the French-speaking countries in overall rates of enrolment and, in particular, in the percentage of girls enrolled. In 1980, 58% of the age-group was completing primary school in the English-speaking countries as compared to 47% in 1960. In the French-speaking countries the comparable rates were 30% in 1980 as compared to 16% in 1960. *Table I* shows the gross enrolment ratios - the percentage of girls attending school in comparison with the number of girls in the primary school age-group - in seven selected African countries. The reader will note two facts: first, the generally higher rates of enrolment in English-speaking countries as compared to French-speaking countries and, secondly, the fact that in two countries - Botswana and Zimbabwe - a higher percentage of girls attend school than do boys.

Unfortunately, the reforms of the education system, which occurred in most countries of the

region, did not achieve their objectives. The reason for this failure was mainly that the reforms were not based on a coherent strategy. *Table 2 (in annex)* shows the rise - and in certain cases the subsequent fall - of gross enrolment ratios in selected African countries between 1960 and 1994/95. As will be noted, the French-speaking countries and Ethiopia have far lower rates than the former English colonies. In the case of Zambia, whose economy is based on copper exports, one can clearly see that as the price of copper declined in the 1980s, so did the percentage of students attending school.

## II. THE PRESENT SITUATION

Today, the progress achieved since independence appears seriously threatened. Even as population growth continues, school enrolments are stable and, in certain cases, declining [*see Table 2*]. Of perhaps even greater importance, the quality of the education provided has deteriorated significantly in many countries.

With the birth of multi-party democracy in countries without previous experience in democratic rule, it became essential to ensure that the schools did not become objects of partisan politics, but that education instead was set above politics and seen as a national responsibility that all politicians and parties must respect and promote. This has been a continuing challenge, but progress is being made.

The fundamental problems of access, quality, equity, retention and achievement are far from being resolved in many African countries. Indeed, it has to be stressed that the budgets devoted to education continue to diminish, even as those devoted to defense and armaments continue to grow.

At the World Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990, and at the Mid-Decade Review of Education for All, which took place in Amman, Jordan, in 1996, it was observed that the rates of growth of school enrolments in Sub-Saharan Africa in the 1980s and 1990s were the lowest of any region as well as rates of literacy (67% for men and 47% for women). While repetition (20%) and population growth were higher than in other regions [*see Table 3 and Table 4 in annex*]. Indeed, the rate of population growth (3%) exceeds the rate of growth of the economy (2%), implying that the level of income per capita is actually declining. Education in the African region also suffers from a serious shortage of equipment and supplies and an inadequate development of means of communication, which in most countries is still in an embryonic stage.

The pressure of population growth has evident negative effects on rates of enrolment. In fact, only about 50% of African children of school age attend school as compared to 73% in South Asia

and 76% in the Middle-East and North Africa. The enrolment rate for girls is even lower as shown by the fact that girls make up 45.6% of total enrolment, virtually the same percentage as in 1990 when girls made up 45.1% of total enrolment in African primary schools.

While persevering efforts are being made to improve the educational situation in Africa, the context is complex and often difficult. Economic, demographic, socio-cultural and institutional factors combine to complicate the problem. African economies are caught up in the processes of restructurization. The liberalization of African economies is, in most cases, taking place within a process of structural adjustment aimed at limiting government expenditures. The burden of debt, structural adjustment requirements and high levels of unemployment all work against the education of children. In 1992, the estimated *per capita* income of Africans was \$850. This average for all countries, of course, conceals glaring differences: e.g., for Mozambique the annual income per head was only \$60 whereas in Gabon it was \$4,450.

In sum, African educational systems are in a state of crisis due to several factors including:

- (i) the weak demand for education, especially in rural areas and among girls. The high level of unemployment among school leavers is convincing parents that schooling is a poor investment of their money or their children's time.
- (ii) the financial crisis in which education systems find themselves as a result of deteriorating terms of trade, policies of structural adjustment aimed at balancing budgets and stimulating stagnating economies, and the competing demands of other government services, including the military.
- (iii) The disorders and prolonged civil wars that have afflicted Africa.

### **Characteristics of the Educational Crisis**

The crisis of education in Africa is evidenced by the persisting inequality of access, especially between boys and girls. In 1990, for example, approximately 60% of boys between the ages of 6 and 11 years were enrolled in school as compared to 52% of girls. Moreover, as the quality of education has declined, more students are repeating classes or leaving school without having achieved mastery of even the most basic skills: reading and writing, developing problem-solving skills, appropriate social and civil attitudes and an understanding of the environment. The average length of school attendance was estimated, in 1992, to be 6 1/2 years for a boy and 5 1/2 years for a girl.

It is often noted that African schools suffer from both excessive centralization of administration and poor management at all levels. Those who administer the schools are, in fact, teachers without any training in administration or management. Most decisions are taken in ministries or central administrations far removed from the day-to-day work of schools. As a result, such decisions often fail to reflect the realities experienced in classrooms and communities. In the absence of precise and up-to-date information, the central administration is unable to effectively administer a system which consists mainly of small and remote schools.

The financial crisis is not only a shortage of resources, although that is certainly central to it, but also the fact that there is no flexibility in using the resources that are available. Increasingly, over 90% of the budget goes to one item of expenditure alone - paying teachers' salaries - leaving little for books and supplies or even the most essential repairs to buildings and equipment. As a consequence, premises are often dilapidated, over-crowded and poorly equipped. Even while most of the budget goes to pay the salaries of teachers, these are usually extremely low and, in many countries, paid only after long delays. Not surprisingly, the motivation of teachers is often low. The growth of higher education, which costs at least 15 to 20 times as much per student as primary education, has also added to the educational burden that governments must bear. The consequence of these pressures can be seen in the decline and, in many cases, break-down of education systems.

### **Implications of the Educational Crisis**

The poor quality of primary education not only reduces learning outcomes, it also complicates the relationship between the school and the community. The culture of the school does not correspond to the culture of the community. Teachers often do not feel responsible before parents, who are viewed as uneducated and unenlightened, and the community, for its part, feels little sense of responsibility towards the school which is seen as an external creation representing concerns and values that are foreign to the community.

The school curriculum has little relevance to the needs of the community. Often, its goals are too ambitious and its content too encyclopedic given the realities of the situation. This explains, in large part, the high rate of student failure. The teachers usually have only a modest level of education themselves and little systematic training. They tend to emphasize rote learning rather than using active methods and have little experience in how to organize a programme that can cater to students of different ages and achievement levels. Very few countries have effective programmes of continuing education and training for teachers to help them overcome these weaknesses.

A shortage of book and school supplies is another serious problem in most countries, especially in rural areas. Often there is only one book for every 20 students and, in many cases, that

book does not reflect the programme currently being followed by the school. Often, the teachers also lack instructional guides to advise them on how to present subjects and manage related classroom activities. In brief, the present situation in Africa is one of multi-dimensional crisis affecting all aspects of the education system.

## **THE EXAMPLE OF GUINEA**

The Declaration on Education for All (EFA) and the plans of action adopted by countries around the world to achieve the goals set forth at the World Conference on Education for All held in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990, have defined a set of responsibilities at all levels - world, regional, sub-regional and national - and targets to be achieved by the year 2000.

Since the Jomtien Conference, most African countries have undertaken actions aimed at the development of their education system by increasing access, improving quality and relevance and upgrading their efficiency. The educational policies that have been formulated are, in most cases, clear, efficient and well supported. In general, the countries have also sought - often in very difficult circumstances - to provide the means for carrying out such policies and the reforms that they entail.

At the international, regional and sub-regional levels, there have been numerous meetings in which national and local experiences, both successful and unsuccessful, have been shared and analyzed. Initiatives have been launched, networks established and mechanisms and modalities put in place.

With the aim of reforming and improving its education system, the Government of Guinea has undertaken several sectoral studies. These have focused on analyses of economic and financial factors, possibilities of administrative reorganization and inquiries into how the education system functions and, by implication, what measures would be needed to improve its operation. On the basis of these studies, in 1989 the Government issued a Declaration of Educational Policies. This is, in effect, a long-term plan for the development of education divided into three phases: 1991-1994, 1995-1997, 1998-2000.

The implementation of the first phase took the form of a carefully planned programme of three years' duration. Three international donors agreed to work together to support this first phase of the plan which involved the structural adjustment of the education sector (PASE). The World Bank, U.S. Aid and the French co-operation provided \$58 million in credits, either in the form of balance of payments support or in direct payments. These three partners were joined by a number of other donors: Japan, the European Community, the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries, the African Development Bank, and the Islamic Development Bank. Non-governmental organizations such as Action Aid also supported the plan. The Ministry of Education was responsible for co-ordination of all inputs, national and international.

To obtain the objectives established by the Declaration of Educational Policies and receive

the financial support pledged by the international community, four sets of measures were taken:

- (i) an administrative re-organization was launched together with measures aimed at improved management and supervision. Among other measures, this involved establishing two educational ministries, one for higher education and a second, which I headed, devoted to pre-university education and professional training with a strong focus on promoting basic education and increasing the participation of girls;
- (ii) a systematic development of human resources and improvements in the pre-service and in-service training of teachers were introduced;
- (iii) improvements in the conditions of instruction in classrooms and the provision of additional support and equipment, including a rationalization of the location of schools, were initiated;
- (iv) content and methods of instruction were revised, and improved practices disseminated.

These reforms were necessary pre-requisites for implementing the new educational policies.

A high-level inter-ministerial committee (*Comité de Suivi du PASE*) was established to follow up and ensure that the required reforms of the education system were effectively implemented. The committee met every three months. Within the Education Ministry, a more specialized committee (*Comité de Pilotage du PASE*), which met monthly, was established to follow the reform process and, where needed, test proposed reforms before introducing them on a national scale. Both committees were supported by a common Technical Secretariat - composed of a national co-ordinator and two expatriate advisers - which worked closely with the different services involved in the reform. Donors' representatives met regularly with the Technical Secretariat.

At the start of each school year, workshops were held to assess the progress of the previous year and set objectives for the coming school year. In the first year of the reform, a national workshop was organized in the capital, Conakry. In subsequent years, the national workshop was replaced by meetings in each of the four main regions of the country in order to take better account of the specific needs and circumstances of each region. These workshops received extensive coverage in the media and thus served as a means for keeping the population informed concerning the goals of the reform, the problems encountered and the progress achieved.

Those responsible for the programme were provided with training to enable them to better perform their duties. They were also made aware that they would be held directly and fully

responsible for ensuring the success of the reform in their activity or area.

On balance, the reform achieved its objective: that of making effective use of internal and external resources in implementing an improved national programme of education in conformity with the policy of the government and acceptable to all partners, domestic and foreign, working in the field of education.

The results achieved are the best proof of the success of the reform: the rate of enrolment in primary education increased from 28% of the age-group in 1990 to 44% in 1994, the management of the system visibly improved, teacher training was expanded, school supplies and equipment were up-graded and - what is especially important - the rate of enrolment of girls was significantly increased. Between 1990 and 1994, 3,000 classrooms were constructed and equipped, half of them by mobilization of internal resources and the voluntary contributions of the community. In addition, many schools and premises used for administrative and other purposes were refurbished. This progress is summarized in Table 5 in annex.

To serve smaller communities, multi-grade schools in which one teacher instructs students of different ages and grade levels were considerably expanded. This served both to increase enrolment and to make more rational use of teachers.

The training provided by human resource development plan allowed a re-allocation of personnel within the system. For example, 1,806 secondary teachers were re-trained for service in primary schools where, as a result of expanding enrolments, the need was greatest. The plan also provided for the re-training of 8,000 teachers in new methods of teaching French and mathematics.

The studies undertaken to guide the reform highlighted the role of discriminatory attitudes in hindering the education of girls. Immediate measures were taken to counteract such stereotypes and prejudices through the revision of the curriculum, the training of teachers, the use of new pedagogical approaches, the revision of textbooks and instructional materials and various other steps.

As part of the reform of education, the Government of Guinea, which had adopted the Declaration on Education for All, launched a number of experiments and pilot projects aimed at increasing the school participation of girls. These undertakings were initiated, conducted and co-ordinated by the Ministry of Education as part of the overall programme aimed at the development of education. The following examples illustrate the far-reaching nature of the actions undertaken.

(1) **Second Chance Education:** This programme aimed at girls between the ages of 9 and 15 who had either never attended school or had dropped out at an early age and to provide them with

literacy training both in a national language and in French. They were also provided with training in a trade or craft to enable them to be able to earn their own living. Second-chance education (NAFA) centres were not imposed upon communities, but were opened only in communities that agreed to provide physical facilities and offer other forms of support. The centres were staffed by women groups and engaged local artisans to teach their trades and crafts to participating youth.

These centres were intended to increase the rate of enrolment in education and achieve the following qualitative goals: reduce the educational disparities between regions and sexes, assist the social integration of young people in general and girls in particular, encourage young people to remain in their communities rather than migrate to cities, protect the environment and prepare young people to live independent lives. The second-chance education centres were also linked with formal education in order that participants could, if desired, either switch to a primary school or, in certain cases, advance to secondary education.

In fact, two models of second-chance education were developed. One model was open to both boys and girls, with the provision that girls had to make up at least 50% of enrolment. The second was for girls only. To establish such a centre a minimum of 60 girls had to be enrolled. By late 1996, 42 centres had been established, covering all regions of the country. Sixty per cent of the youth who enrolled at such centres have since entered or been re-integrated into the formal education system. The second-chance learning centres project is guided by an inter-ministerial committee which includes representatives responsible for the promotion of women and for youth programmes as well as officials from the ministries of education, finance and co-operation.

(2) **National Committee for Equal Educational Opportunities for Girls** : This inter-ministerial committee, composed of senior government officials responsible for education, promotion of women and social affairs, is charged with:

- examining disparities in educational opportunities between boys and girls;
- determining the factors that influence the decisions of families in rural areas to enroll or not enroll their children, especially their daughters, in school;
- developing and implementing a national plan of action aimed at eliminating obstacles to the enrolment of disadvantaged children.

The Committee has taken action in a number of areas: legal texts that have had a discriminatory effect upon girls and women have been revised, educational statistics have been carefully examined to determine the pattern of disparity in order that an effective strategy of intervention can be designed, an overall study of all measures taken since independence to promote education - especially for girls and children in rural areas - is being completed, studies examining

family decision-making concerning education have been launched, and an exchange of experience with other countries within the sub-region is underway.

The Committee has also developed an effective strategy, including the use of media, to raise the consciousness of the public, and in particular that of selected target groups and regions, concerning inequalities in educational opportunities. The strategy has three dimensions: national, regional and local. The national campaign uses a multimedia approach and emphasizes the use of spot announcements, songs, plays and public announcements to convey appropriate messages. The regional campaign, based mainly on rural radio, is adapted to the particular situation of each region. Use is also made, especially at the local level, of educational promoters and local leaders to spread awareness to villages and hamlets.

A pilot programme has also been conducted in which students are provided with school materials and essential medicines in order to attract them to school and to improve the state of their health. This experimental programme is being supported by USAID and the World Bank.

A mid-course review of the work of the Committee for Equal Educational Opportunities for Girls concluded that it had had a very positive effect in overcoming the reluctance of parents to send their children, girls as well as boys, to school.

The progress of the reform is also shown by other statistics. For example, the number of classrooms increased from 7,312 in 1990 to 10,443 in 1993. A total of 1,400,000 school manuals were distributed in 1993. The salaries of teachers were substantially increased to compensate for inflation and rises in the cost of living. As already noted, 8,000 teachers were re-trained in French and mathematics. In addition, 111 advisors were trained in order to assist in the in-service training of teachers.

Measures were also taken to make more effective use of trained manpower and available resources by increasing the number of multigrade schools, making the school year more flexible and redeploying teachers from secondary to primary schools. In order to monitor reforms more effectively, the collection of statistics was also improved. Audits of the functioning of the ministry were also undertaken and various administrative reforms introduced to improve efficiency.

In brief, the first phase of the reform (PASE) represented a fundamental change in both the conception of education and in the measures taken for its promotion. Basic education received increased attention and resources and was re-organized in order to make more effective use of available means. For the first time regional differences were fully recognized and measures taken to involve the community more actively in the promotion of education. The education of girls became

both a goal of educational policy and a measure of its success.

Personally, I devoted seven years to preparing and implementing the reforms discussed above. The team which I built and with which I worked is still in place. Prior to leaving my post, I negotiated the financial arrangements for a second phase of the educational reform (PASE II) which will both consolidate the gains of the first phase and widen the scope of reforms to include secondary and university education as well as adult education. Indeed, the second phase of the reform will represent a major step toward the goal of education for all.

Among the steps foreseen in the national plan of action to achieve education for all are the following:

- expansion of the second-chance education centres (NAFA);
- expansion of the centres providing youth with training in technologies and crafts and preparing them to enter the world of work (CETA);
- re-organization of the National Literacy Service and the activation of its regional and local branches in order to support local literacy initiatives;
- provision of increased support to the Centre for Environmental Education and Development (CEED) in Pita, which aims at opening the school to its environment and promoting the participation of the local population in the educational life of the community;
- support to private initiatives aimed at contributing to education for all.

During my seven years as minister, I travelled to all parts of the country in order to sensitize local officials, union leaders and business people, school administrators, parents, teachers and children - indeed, everyone I encountered - to the importance of education for all: to its importance to the individual, girl or boy, woman or man, to its importance to the well-being of groups and communities and to its importance for our nation. My technique, however, was not to lecture but to share information. I sought to tell them that it was not the government's programme, but their programme and that its success or failure depended upon them. This direct and personal approach was essential to gain the support of the population. I profited from these contacts to communicate the message that education is a national responsibility and that promoting it is the responsibility of every citizen and all governments . The growing acceptance of this message has placed education above politics as was demonstrated in the elections - communal, presidential and legislative - that took place between 1990 and 1993 . While many problems remain, there is now a strong consensus in Guinea that education for all is an essential national goal.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS AND PERSPECTIVES FOR THE FUTURE**

### **1 . Recommendations**

The leaders of education in Africa are fully aware of the crisis that their education systems are confronting. The exchange of experience at periodic regional and sub-regional meetings reveals that the strategies the different countries are adopting are essentially convergent. The recommendations that have derived from such meetings concern different levels of action.

#### **Issues of overall educational policy**

- The implementation of an education that is free, obligatory and universal and ensures that no child, particularly those with handicaps or disadvantaged, is left out.
- The re-definition of the school in terms of quality, equity and efficiency.
- The expression of political will through declarations of intentions, budget allocations and institutional and legal measures.
- The development of basic education: including increasing the availability of primary education, improvements in educational quality, and introduction of innovations such as the use of solar lighting systems in order that classrooms can also be used for non-formal classes in the evening.
- The involvement of local communities in defining the objectives for the school and in undertaking projects aimed at meeting the needs of the school.
- The provision of funding for literacy and adult education within the government budget.
- Educational policies must be aimed at achieving education for all and, with that objective in view, must draw upon the results of research-action studies on the school and apply the diverse methods used in literacy work in order that children, youth and adults are actively engaged in learning and training activities. Only such a strategy can result in a true democratization of education and human resource development and ensure their application to the development of the society.

#### **Issues at the Community Level**

- Creating synergies between educational programmes and other development projects and programmes such as village water projects and activities directed towards population education, health, hygiene, etc.
- Use of distance education.
- Developing complementarity between formal and non-formal types of training and building bridges between these two systems.

- Strengthening population policies.
- Prohibiting customs with a negative impact such as female excision and early marriage of girls. Such measures, of course, have to be preceded by major awareness-raising campaigns. It is essential to progressively overcome taboos and promote positive values in order to avoid brutal conflicts between tradition and modernity.
- Literacy programmes for parents have to be conceived not only as valuable in themselves, but also as means for promoting the schooling of children, especially girls.
- Cultural identity has to be promoted through the use of national languages.
- Students have to be mobilized and facilitated in campaigns to make their parents and other family members literate.
- Educational programmes and activities have to be carefully adapted to the village and family context and must take account of daily and seasonal work schedules and of the needs and wishes of learners.
- Methods and approaches have to be developed that are efficient and adaptable to various situations; in many cases, rural radio can provide a low-cost and effective support to educational activities.
- Multi-media approaches and programmes have shown their ability to attract young learners, especially girls, into educational programmes and, because of their flexibility, are often more acceptable to parents and families.
- The strengthening of parents-teacher associations can be an important measure for reconciling the school and the community by establishing a permanent channel of dialogue between the teacher and parents. It is necessary that women be actively involved in leadership roles in parents-teacher associations in order to promote the enrolment of girls.
- Evidently, it is also important that educational programmes - for children, youth and adults alike - seek to establish and improve dialogue between parents and their children.
- As education depends upon community support and participation, there is a continuing need to emphasize the importance of education - especially education for girls - through information and awareness-raising campaigns conducted by rural radio and rural press as well as through messages on television during those hours and programmes that attract the largest audiences. Such efforts can be launched and supported by traditional and religious organizations, unions, employers and others.
- Successful and innovative educational experiences have to be made better known in order that they serve as lessons and inspire action by others.
- The rational development and management of education systems depends upon the availability of up-to-date, systematic and reliable statistical information. It is important, from the very start of any reform, to provide for the collection of statistics, by sex and other relevant factors, in order to plan the development of the school system and monitor the participation of girls.

- Scholarships and other incentives should be provided to gifted children from disadvantaged parts of the population.
- To achieve education for all, it is necessary to forbid the employment of school-age children.

### **Issues related to the improvement of educational programmes**

- Given the high rate of population growth in many countries and the impact of early marriage and pregnancies on the education of girls, it is important to teach - in a manner which respects community values - population and sex education in the school. It is also necessary to ensure that those responsible for sexual harassment are given exemplary punishment in order that others not be tempted to follow their example.
- Teen-age mothers should be permitted to return to school after the birth of a child. I would note here the progress that we achieved in this area in Guinea. During the school years 1992-93, 1993-94 and 1994-95, a total of 539 girls became pregnant during the course of their studies. In the past, this would have almost certainly required them to terminate their studies. However, through counselling and a special effort to assist such girls, two-thirds of them (352) resumed their studies. Another 25 were placed on academic leave and have a good chance of being reintegrated into school in the future.
- School schedules should be made more flexible, especially in rural areas, and programmes more relevant to the needs of both girls and boys, women and men at all levels of education.
- The establishment of efficient systems of monitoring and evaluation of student performance are important in promoting positive outcomes.
- Sexual stereotypes and content that directly or by implication discriminates against girls and women must be systematically removed from the books and learning materials used in all levels of education, including literacy and post-literacy programmes.
- In the training of trainers and that of teachers, in-service as well as pre-service, emphasis must be given to treating boys and girls equally and developing attitudes favourable to girls as well as boys. The teacher needs to be an active and attentive promoter of equality between the sexes.
- The teacher and all those involved in the school must develop an attitude of neutrality regarding sex or gender in the conduct of classes, the selection and use of instructional and training materials, the choice of vocabulary, courses of study, role models and vocational choices proposed and, indeed, in all activities. The school must be respectful of community views, but it must also be a source of new ideas and values and of cultural renewal.
- It has to be recognized that the financial cost of the measures discussed above -which, I would add, is a selective and not an exhaustive listing of needed reforms - exceeds the possibilities of governments alone. It is accordingly necessary to support the action of the State with an engagement of the entire national community, including the private sector, in

order to spread basic education. It is also essential that the international community, especially donor countries and organizations, act in a concerted manner to support national efforts in keeping with the pledges made in Jomtien to work together to achieve education for all. One especially promising approach is the use of ‘debt swaps’ tied to increased funding for education for all strategies.

## **2. Prospects for the Future**

Africa is mobilizing to address the problems of education with which the continent is confronted. The leaders of Africa proclaimed 1996 as the Year of African Education as well as the start of the Decade of Education in Africa. This reflects the keen awareness of the governments of Africa that education represents an essential dimension of development. For the historical reasons discussed above, Africa is far behind other major regions of the world in the areas of education and training. This is a major challenge for a continent which is also afflicted with numerous other problems including malnutrition, inadequate health care and a growing degradation of nature environments.

The development of basic education cannot be achieved through speeches and declarations of intent; it requires the establishment of well-defined and obtainable objectives and the implementation of national and regional programmes based on efficient information systems and effective management. Such programmes will require sacrifices, efforts and imagination:

- the mobilization by African governments of their financial, human and material resources together with the provision of adequate international support to complement national efforts;
- a concrete response to the proposal in the 1994 *Human Development Report* calling for major reductions in military budgets;
- the encouragement of the private sector and non-governmental organizations to play a greater role in the field of basic education;
- the establishment of a true partnership between national authorities, communities, NGOs and others capable of supporting basic education, including an effective decentralization of resources and authority and the promotion of active participation at all levels.

The involvement of the regional and sub-regional educational networks established in Africa to share experience among countries in the formulation and implementation of basic education policies is a positive factor promoting the success of national efforts. International discussions aimed at promoting education in Africa are taking place within the UNESCO General Conference, the Association for the Development of Education in Africa, and the Forum for African Women

Educationalists - as well as in experts meetings which provide forums for the exchange of experience, both successful and unsuccessful. International support, however, needs to be solidly linked to dynamic national programmes of action involving all forces and sectors working for development.

I will end this presentation with this thought: if the destiny of education in Africa is truly in the hands of Africans, is it not desirable that donors conceive and accept a new mode of co-operation, namely that they support systems of education in Africa by working together with African educators and ensuring that their contributions support the achievement of established national objectives? The success of international assistance can be judged by only one criterion: the success of the national programmes that it supports.

Lastly, let me express my firm conviction that with the valuable Special Initiative of the Secretary-General of the United Nations, launched in March 1996, which makes basic education the corner stone of all development, the African States, thanks to their own efforts and perseverance as well as to the effective aid of their national and international partners, will surmount all the enormous difficulties that confront them and achieve the goal of bringing education to all in the near future. My conviction, I would add, is further strengthened by the fact that the African Ministers of Education have adopted this initiative and integrated it into their own plans of action. Yes, the challenge is great and the difficulties daunting, but Africa's leaders and its people are firmly convinced that there can be no meaningful and lasting development without education.

## **ANNEX**

### **List of Tables**

1. Gross Enrollment by Gender for Selected Countries: Primary Level from 1960 to 1983
2. Gross Enrollment for Selected Countries: Primary Level
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4. Literacy: Countries with High Rates and Countries with Low Rates
5. Structural Adjustment Programme of the Education Sector (PASE)

**Table 1. Gross Enrollment by Gender for Selected Countries: Primary Level from 1960 to 1983**

	English-speaking countries								French-speaking countries					
	Botswana		Ethiopia		Zambia		Zimbabwe		Burkina		Guinea		Mali	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
1960	36	41	11	4	61	40	83	66	13	5	30	11	13	5
1983	89	102	46	29	100	95	113	127	34	20	49	23	30	18

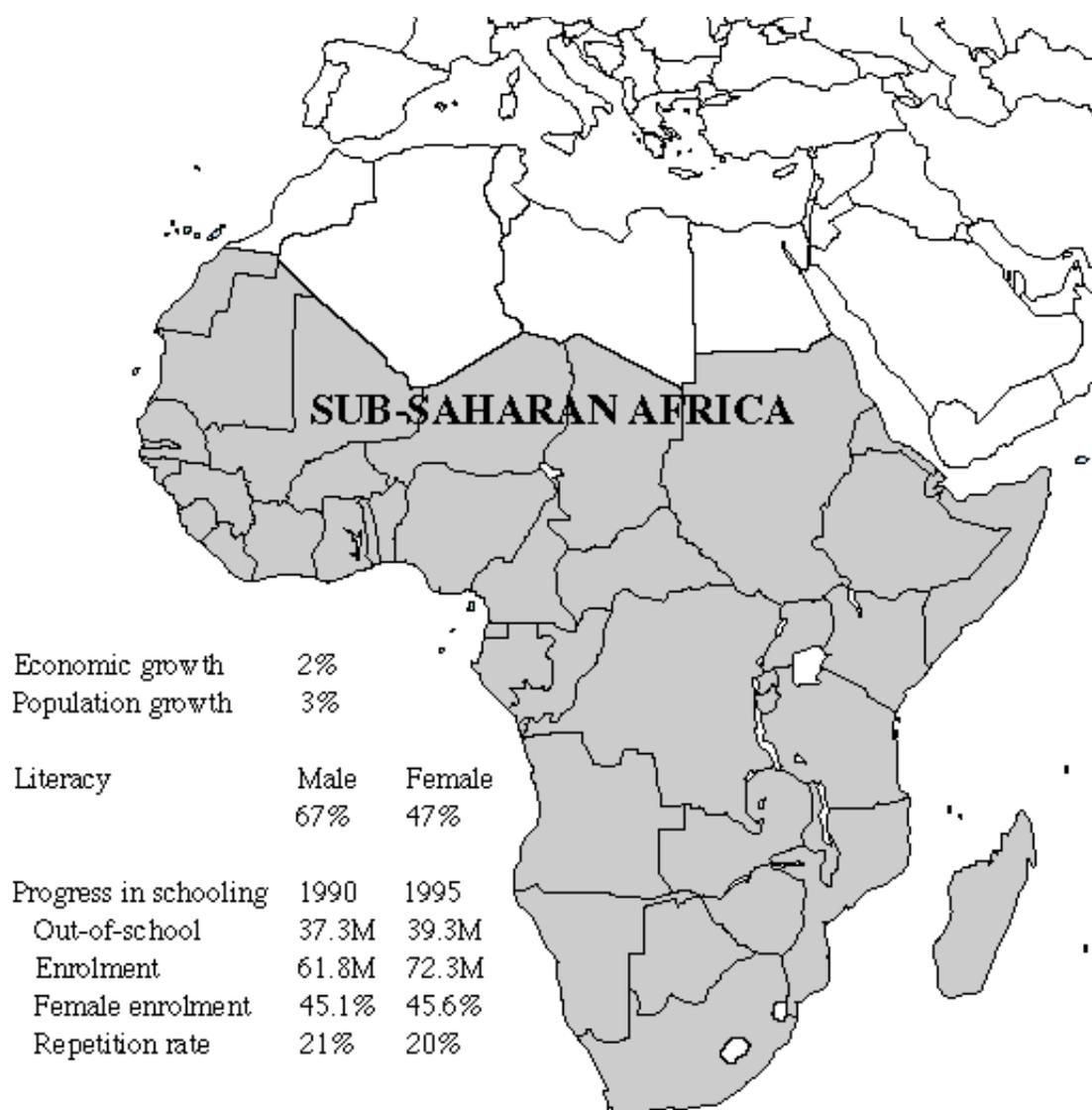
Sources: *World Education Report*, UNESCO, 1995

**Table 2. Gross Enrollment for Selected Countries: Primary Level**

	English-speaking countries				French-speaking countries		
	Botswana	Ethiopia	Zambia	Zimbabwe	Burkina	Guinea	Mali
1960	39	7	51	74	9	20	9
1983	96	38	100	131	27	36	---
1989/ 1990	144	36	94	121	30	28	22
1990/ 1991	114	33	92	112	31	32	23
1991/ 1992	118	27	89	118	32	32	25
1992/ 1993	116	23	87	115	33	36	29
1993/ 1994	115	27	84	116	34	40	33
1994/ 1995	115	---	82	117	36	45	35

Sources: *World Education Report*, UNESCO, 1995; Audincos, B., "Strengthening National Education Statistical Information Systems (NESIS) in Sub-Saharan Africa- Summary of National Reports", Working paper, September, 1996.

**Table 3. Sub-Saharan Africa: Literacy and Progress in Schooling**



**Table 4.**

**Literacy**

**Countries with high rates**

▶ **Literacy rate > 60%**

South Africa	Madagascar
Botswana	Mauritius
Cameroon	Namibia
Cap Verde	Uganda
Congo	Rwanda
Gabon	Swaziland
Ghana	Tanzania
Equatorial Guinea	Zaire
Kenya	Zambia
Lesotho	Zimbabwe

▶ **Literacy rate between 50-60%**

Comoros	Nigeria
Guinea Bissau	Togo
Malawi	

**Countries with low rates**

▶ **Literacy rate between 30-50%**

Angola	Liberia
Benin	Mali
Burundi	Mauritania
Côte d'Ivoire	Mozambique
Djibouti	Senegal
Ethiopia	Sierra Leone
Gambia	Sudan
Guinea	Chad

▶ **Literacy rate < 30%**

Burkina Faso
Niger
Somalia

**Table 5. Structural Adjustment Programme of Education Sector (PASE)**

Areas	Objectives (set in 1989 for 1993)	Achievements (1993)
Budgetary allocations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Govt. contribution</li> <li>• % education budget for primary education</li> </ul>	14.0% 15.0%	26.0% 36.0%
Enrollment rates <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Total</li> <li>• 1st grade enrollment</li> <li>• % Girls enrolled</li> </ul>	28.0% 39.4%(1990-1991) 19.7%(1990-1991)	40.1% 50.7% 26.2%
School conditions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Classrooms</li> <li>• Textbooks</li> <li>• Teacher motivation</li> </ul>	7,312 n/a —	10,443 (153 built by JICA) 1,400,000 books distributed Salary x 100% with adoption of teacher incentive scheme
Training		In-service training for 8,000 teachers (math & French)  In-service training for 111 primary school teachers  Training 64 trainers from teacher training colleges
School management <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Multi-grade classes</li> <li>• Multiple shifts</li> <li>• Redeployment of teachers</li> <li>• Data collection</li> </ul>	4.2% (1991-1992) 10.7% (1991-1992) — —	6.6% 11.5% 1,806 teachers from secondary to primary level Improvement in data collection at all levels

## 1. PANEL DISCUSSION I.

### “ Problems, Issues and Opportunity of Basic Education in Sub-Saharan Africa ”



# Basic Education in Sub-Saharan Africa and Japan's Initiatives for Educational Cooperation

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## 1. Introduction

"The World Conference of Education for All (WCEFA)," which was held in Thailand in 1990, renewed and disseminated appreciation of the gravity of the current status of education in developing countries and deepened recognition of the importance of aid in the field of education. Basic education in developing countries faces both quantitative and qualitative problems. The "Declaration" adopted during this conference strongly advocated that these developing countries and donor organizations must each initiate action toward resolving such problems as well as the necessity of disseminating "functional literacy" with the aim of achieving fuller social participation by community residents. Moreover, the educational issue is a basic problem that is interwoven with such global problems as environmental preservation, population growth, health, and poverty. In other words, education is a field that always demands attention during consideration of any other field. From this perspective, the improvement of basic education as advocated during EFA can be said to be an urgent task.

When considering aid for education, particularly in the field of basic education, Sub-Saharan Africa ranks alongside South Asia and Central and South America as one of top-priority regions. I thus believe that the holding of this international seminar on this occasion has been well-timed.

This seminar provides a favorably opportunity because the orientation of Japan's ODA has recently been undergoing vast transformation, and one factor of change is that Sub-Saharan Africa and basic education have come to occupy important roles in ODA. In this sense, aid to Sub-Saharan Africa for basic education is an issue that cannot be overlooked when considering Japan's ODA record during recent years.

On this occasion, I would like to discuss the following three points:

- What problems does Sub-Saharan Africa face in the field of basic education?
- What are the best approaches to education aid in Sub-Saharan Africa?
- How should this issue be positioned within the trends of Japan's aid for education?

Furthermore, though I mentioned the trends of Japan's aid for education, such assistance from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, JICA, the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture (Monbu-sho) and the universities have their own characters. In this respect, I would like to also discuss initiatives by the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture and the universities, a topic which is rarely introduced in a seminar of this nature.

## **2. The Problems of Basic Education in Sub-Saharan Africa**

Within its fiscal 1996 budget, Japan has placed unprecedented priority on aid to Africa. One reason is that Sub-Saharan Africa is thought to be facing numerous problems in the field of basic education.

The majority of Sub-Saharan African countries have made tremendous efforts toward educational development since gaining their independence, because the colonial governments provided education which aimed at training government officers whereas national education was scarcely conducted. From the 1960s to the 1970s, primary school enrollment rates and literacy rates rose at high levels. From the 1980s onward, however, most of the countries have entered a phase of economic difficulties. Even today, critical economic circumstances prevail in Sub-Saharan Africa and 31 of its countries require the Special Program of Assistance for Low-Income Debt-Distressed Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SPA) which consists of aid for structural adjustments. Furthermore, from a social standpoint, population growth rates remain high and the influx of population into urban areas continues. From a political standpoint, a number of countries are unstable and there are also countries which are experiencing civil wars. These economic, social, and political difficulties are thus casting dark shadows over educational development.

### **2.1 Sluggish Growth in Primary School Enrollment Rates**

In the field of education, unstable socioeconomic circumstances are manifesting in the form of stagnant growth in primary school enrollment rates. From the 1950s to the 1970s, the overall primary school enrollment rate for developing countries rose about 10% every ten years, generally reaching a level of 60 to 70% in 1980. During the 1980s, however, enrollment rates stagnated in low-income countries, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa, and even decreased in several countries.

What are the causes for this stagnation or decrease in enrollment rates? There are three conceivable causes. The first reason is that because primary education has spread to the level of 80 or 90%, new enrollment targets have shifted to socially marginal groups which require even greater efforts for enrollment. The second reason is the decrease in school construction due to cutbacks in education expenditures as a result of economic crises. The third reason is the growing number of children who cannot attend school because of an increasing poverty sector and the adoption of

tuition systems by schools.

Although the first cause is a problem of educational development, the second and third causes are related to financial policy because they represent problems of the safety-net programs concerning structural adjustments.

In addition, the extended economic crises are drying up social overhead capital and weakening the communities. Because primary schools in Sub-Saharan Africa have historically been supported by the community, the administration and operation of primary schools are being seriously affected by the weakening of communities.

## **2.2 Decline in the Quality of Education**

The second cause is the declining quality of education. In many countries, due to financial crisis and structural adjustment policy, the educational budget is being throttled and governmental employees involved in education are being laid off. As a result, because school construction cannot keep up with the increasing number of children, the learning environment of children is deteriorating such that 100 students study in a single classroom, there are shortages of desks, chairs, and textbooks, and so forth. In addition, teachers' wages are suppressed at low levels while opportunities for teacher training are decreasing, thus obstructing the intellectual advancement of teachers and lowering their social status.

## **2.3 Weakening of Secondary Education**

Regarding secondary education, because international organizations and donor countries have shifted their focus to basic education since the 1990s, the scarcity of overseas aid for secondary education has started to exert the reverse effect of impeding educational development.

Even in Sub-Saharan Africa, the number of applicants to lower secondary schools has risen sharply due to the increased social importance placed on academic backgrounds in countries where primary education has become somewhat widespread. To ensure that each stage of education is meaningful, the challenges facing secondary education are to provide career counseling to graduates, grant academic qualifications, and so on.

## **2.4 Problems of a Multicultural, Multilingual Society**

The nations of Sub-Saharan Africa are multiethnic countries. Since their independence, many countries adopted a national curriculum as basic education to promote national unification. At present, however, there is a growing need for basic education that respects the characteristic culture or language of the respective ethnic groups comprising each country. This will require reviews of linguistic policy and the mass media regarding the use of ethnic languages as well as

consequent educational reforms.

## **2.5 Increase in Regional Disparities**

Economic disparities between urban and rural areas are deeply linked to disparities in the educational environment. An economic crisis in a rural area weakens the foundation of the community which, in turn, weakens the foundation for basic education. Furthermore, the strong preservation of traditional social norms and values in rural areas exerts a negative impact on entry into lower secondary schools and the promotion of school enrollment of girls and women.

## **3. Aid for Education in Sub-Saharan Africa**

Up to now, education aid provided by Japan to Sub-Saharan Africa has concentrated on upper secondary education and vocational training, with a focus on school construction and the dispatch of JOCV (Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers) corps in the field of basic education.

### **3.1 School Construction**

Over the past several years, schools have been consecutively constructed mainly in West African countries through grant-aid. I had the chance to personally visit primary schools in several countries last year but, as a rule, school construction was judged necessary in every case due to the inadequacy of the school buildings. Besides the buildings themselves, there are simultaneous shortages of everything else, including toilets, wells, fences, desks, chairs, and textbooks. I was made aware of the effect of cutbacks in government budgets combined with suspended functioning even in areas that had been traditionally shouldered by the community.

There are also deficiencies in teacher training and the posting of teachers to schools. It will thus be necessary to coordinate activities for school construction, the training and posting of teachers, and the reinforcement of local education administration organizations.

### **3.2 JOCV (Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteers)**

JOCV members dispatched to Africa in the field of education have mainly been involved in science, mathematics, and technical knowledge at the level of lower secondary education. The competence of Japan's JOCV corps in the educational sector have earned high acclaim. This reflects Japan's characteristic of gathering excellent human resources in the field of education. The problem, however, is communication skills. Japanese people have studied the English language since junior high school but have almost no opportunity to study the French language.

Although the JOCV corps make a significant contribution in terms of human resources, cooperative activities with other schemes will be necessary to support the problems of Sub-Saharan Africa in the field of basic education.

#### **4. What are the Best Approaches to Basic Education in Sub-Saharan Africa?**

Education aid by JICA has fundamentally been implemented on the basis of the recommendations of "The Study Group on Development Assistance for Education and Development" which convened in 1993<sup>1</sup>. Accordingly, the field of basic education is given priority even in the case of Sub-Saharan Africa. Japan has little experience with assistance for basic education in Sub-Saharan Africa and has also conducted little research on that theme. It is thus difficult for me to speak on the basis of corroborative evidence about the issue of Japan's aid for basic education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Consequently, I would like to proceed to give a summary of my personal opinions.

##### **4.1 Support to Safety-Net Programs**

Considering the decreasing tendency of education budgets as a result of structural adjustments, the expansion and improvement of safety-net programs becomes essential to basic education. It will surely be necessary to study the feasibility of school construction and support for textbooks within the framework of safety-net programs. Furthermore, debate over the burden of recurrent costs should also be examined in relation to structural adjustments.

##### **4.2 Limits to an Approach from the Educational Sector**

As described in Chapter 2, the dimension of each educational problem in Sub-Saharan Africa far exceeds the reach of an approach from the educational sector alone. Although initiatives by the

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Japan's basic policy for education aid is based on the following recommendations by the "Study Group on Development Assistance for Education and Development" (Tsuneo Iida, Chairman), which convened in 1993.

- Expand aid for basic education: Despite Japan's high levels of education and strong public awareness of the importance of education, education aid has thus far accounted for only about 10% of Japan's total ODA. Consequently, it should be increased at least 2-fold to 15% by the year 2000.
- Stress aid for basic education: Quantitative and qualitative improvements of basic education constitute an urgent task in view of their essential nature. Up to now, Japan has provided relatively little assistance toward basic education compared with other. In the future, basic education is a field which should be given priority.
- Tailor aid to stages of each country's educational development: Developing countries have diverse requirements with respect to aid for education. International organizations and donor countries now tend to increase their stress on basic education, however, and are rapidly shifting their aid toward basic education from vocational and technical training and higher education. To maintain a balance between each educational stage for the educational development of a recipient country, the overall educational development of that country must be considered and aid must be implemented according to the current stage of its educational development.

educational sector are indispensable to coping with such problems as population growth, increasing poverty, weakening communities, and the transition to a multicultural multilingual society, such initiatives must be implemented as a single part of a comprehensive policy. The current activities of school construction and JOCV dispatch will also need to be planned in coordination with higher-level programs.

### **4.3 Tie-Ups with Local Specialists**

Up to now, Japan's aid programs have been formulated and implemented by Japanese people. The educational issues of each country are best understood by specialists in the country concerned. In particular, there are few Japanese researchers who specialize in education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Cooperation with specialists (of diverse nationalities) in the field will thus be essential. Especially when implementing a technical cooperation program, it will be necessary to consider the framework of not only Japanese specialists and local counterparts but also a framework that permits hiring of local specialists and local NGOs.

### **4.4 What can the Educational Sector do for the Community?**

In any country, participation and support from the community are crucial to basic education. At the same time, schools have served as the cultural hub of their community. This also holds true in Sub-Saharan Africa. Consequently, a measure to strengthen schools also serves as a measure for strengthening the community. Aid for basic education must be considered as measures for rural development and community support.

## **5. Initiatives by Japan's Ministry of Education, Science, Sports, and Culture and the Universities**

Official development assistance by Japan's Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Cultural has mainly consisted of receiving exchange students from abroad and conducting academic exchange. Participation in educational cooperation implemented by exchange students or other types of ODA has been rare. As the first ODA policy paper on education, however, "The Report Regarding Promotion of International Cooperation in the Field of Education Responding to International Needs" was presented in June of 1996. It is a report compiled by the Conference for International Educational Cooperation Responding to Current International Needs.

This report is divided into three chapters. The first chapter states the growing need for educational cooperation, and the second chapter describes the orientation of educational cooperation. In particular, it discusses the importance of primary and lower secondary education,

perceives international cooperation as the task of universities and other educational institutions, and also states the necessity of forming an organization for that purpose.

The third chapter proposes seven specific policies, among which I believe the most important to consist of the dispatch of educational advisors to developing countries, the establishment of international cooperation centers at universities, and the training of consultants.

### **5.1 Dispatch of Advisors**

Regarding the dispatch of advisors to the Ministry of Education in developing countries, Japan has already established a favorable record in such countries as Indonesia, Cambodia, and the Dominican Republic. JICA now follows a policy of increasing its number of advisor-type specialists, and there will surely be more in the years to come. The duties of advisor-type specialists, however, differ from those of conventional specialists engaged in technical transfer. Therefore, the efficacy of advisor-type specialists presents an issue for future deliberation.

### **5.2 International Cooperation Centers**

The Japanese government's draft proposals for fiscal 1997 include the establishment of an international cooperation center at Hiroshima University. This center will serve to promote international cooperation in the field of education. From fiscal 1997 onward, Japan aims to successively establish international cooperation centers in the fields of medicine, agriculture, and engineering. It also intends to form a consortium of universities around each center, in anticipation of organized implementation of education aid programs by each consortium.

### **5.3 Training of Consultants**

Up to now, there have been few developmental consultants in the field of education. The work of a developmental consultant consists of forming liaisons between the teaching staff and researchers of JICA, OECF (Overseas Economic Cooperation Fund), universities, and other institutes during the formulation and implementation of education aid programs. Due to the expectations placed on intellectual contributions by universities during the forthcoming shift in the focus of assistance from quantity to quality, the training of educational consultants will be essential.

## **6. Closing**

What are the keywords for education aid in the future? From the perspective of the preceding discussion of basic education in Sub-Saharan Africa, I believe that two keywords may be

"multisectoralism" and "multiculturalism," which both begin with the prefix "multi."

From a multisectoral standpoint, no progress can be made with the problems in the basic education sector by concentrating on basic education alone. Moreover, community problems cannot be solved only by support on the community level. Teamwork between both the central government and the community will be required, and support that links both parties will also be needed. As a result, a multisectoral approach becomes an inevitable requirement.

A multicultural approach will be needed not only because the educational issues involve multiethnic countries but also because modern educational issues are multicultural. Future aid for education will surely require intellectual support not only in economics and education but also in such fields as sociology and anthropology.

When considering teaching methods and teacher training, as another term with the prefix "multi," "multimedia" technology also becomes important because the advent of new media known as multimedia will open doors to unprecedented approaches to education and training. I imagine that the use of multimedia might even reinstate an outdated type of education aid (leader training) in a new form.

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# **Financing Sustainable Education Programs in Sub-Saharan Africa: Challenges and Opportunities**

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## **RATIONALE FOR INVESTING IN EDUCATION**

1. No nation has ever had significant economic development without achieving a broad based education for its population. Investment in education has been found to be the most cost-effective means of achieving poverty-related objectives such as better health and nutrition and lower fertility rates.. The strong synergy between investments in education, health, nutrition, and family planning is particularly important in SSA where maternal mortality, child mortality and fertility rates are, respectively, about 55%, 65% and 80% above the average for developing countries. Education, especially of girls, is one of the most effective investments to reduce fertility levels: estimates from 20 countries suggest that fertility and child mortality decline by 5%-10% for each additional year of primary education, other factors equal. The 1993 World Development Report concluded that the benefits of educating girls is sufficiently high on health grounds alone to make such investments attractive even before other benefits are taken into account..

2. In addition to these direct economic outcomes, education is also the necessary bedrock of social, economic and political development. Education is important for creating enabling conditions for sustaining change. A well educated populace is necessary to bring about technological innovation and to adapt and modify it in the context of local conditions and realities. Similarly, a well educated and competitive labor force is an important factor in attracting foreign investments. SSA needs to urgently revitalize its education systems in order to benefit more fully from increasing global economic integration and technological dynamism.

3. While investing in education is a necessary condition, it is not sufficient to achieve sustained economic growth. Past lessons show that when economies are badly managed, such investments may go to waste. The contribution of education to economic growth depends largely on the nature of the economic system which shapes the way skills are applied and made productive. In addition, economic growth is necessary to sustain education expansion in that such growth increases revenues available to education both from the public as well as from private sources. Programs to support education development, therefore, need to be situated within a solid macroeconomic framework. While research findings from across the world show that education

does contribute to aggregate output, this linkage is less robust for SSA countries--reflecting factors such as a lack of complementary inputs into education, weak institutional capacity and other obstacles that prevent full utilization of skills. Much greater attention, therefore, needs to be given not just to the quantitative expansion of education in SSA but even more importantly to inputs that raise the qualitative outcomes of education programs.

## **CONTEXT OF FINANCING EDUCATION PROGRAMS**

### **One Size does not fit all**

4. Sub-Saharan Africa is large. It comprises 48 countries with a 1995 population of 583 million who speak over 1,000 languages. This discussion, based on averages, masks important country differences, some of which have important implications for the design and implementation of education programs. They include:

- *Economic Diversity:* while the average GNP per capita is \$490, there are 7 countries with GNP per capita of over \$1,000 (Botswana, Gabon, Mauritius, Namibia, Seychelles, Swaziland and South Africa). Secondly, while economic growth has generally been quite sluggish and often negative, 20 countries registered GDP growth rates of more than 4% between 1994-96. Seven of them (Lesotho, Equatorial Guinea, Togo, Uganda, Angola, Eritrea, and Chad), registered growth rates of more than 6%.

- *Political Diversity* - There are about 30 emerging democracies in SSA with a growing enlightened civil society. They include Uganda, Ghana, Mali, Kenya, South Africa where greater participation of the civil society in the design and implementation of education programs is important for sustainability. Countries such as Angola, Mozambique, Uganda, Ethiopia and Eritrea which are emerging from civil turmoil have special financing needs to inter alia support the re-building of education infrastructure. About 13 countries are in civil turmoil. They include Somalia, Rwanda and Burundi where support to education is severely constrained by the instability and insecurity.

- *Historical Diversity* - Francophone countries such as Senegal or Guinea generally have large public-sector led systems with a strong role for the central government. Anglophone countries such as Ghana, Uganda or Kenya have a more mixed education system characterized by a significant non-public and decentralized system of education provision. Lusophone countries which include Mozambique and Angola inherited socialist forms of government that are public-sector led. Then there are the countries that are multi-lingual -Cameroon, Mauritius or South

Africa which are grappling with harmonizing often diametrically opposed systems of education even as they try to use education to build social cohesion.

### **Population Growth that Outpaces Resources Available to Education**

5. Between 1995 and 2020 the population of primary school age children is projected to increase by 52% in SSA and by 25% in MNA while in all other regions of the world it will be on the decline (chart 1). Because of this rapid population growth, 65% of the population in SSA is less than 25 years old as compared to 53% in Latin America, 47% in East Asia and 35% in developed countries. Growth in the number of school age children has outstripped the increase in the resources available to education. Although the number of school pupils is very large (71 million in primary and 17 million in secondary schools) this represents only 73% and 24% of the relevant age group. The situation creates a vicious cycle of high population and low education coverage because education (especially of girls) is one of the most effective investments to reduce fertility.

### **Heavy Debt Overhang**

6. The aggregate debt for SSA increased from \$84 billion in 1980 to \$190 billion in 1990 and to \$223 billion in 1995. Currently, debt servicing as a proportion of total exports is close to 20%. For several countries servicing of external debt constrains government investments in education and related investments. The debt initiative - Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Debt Initiative (HIPC)- which is currently under discussion is intended to ease debt to sustainable levels for some of these countries. An important aspect of this initiative is that it will be linked to performance of the policy reform and especially the effect policies have on reducing poverty. The program will monitor actions to improve allocations in public expenditures especially in basic health care and education. Uganda is expected to be one of the first countries to benefit from HIPC.

## **THE CHALLENGE OF FINANCING SUSTAINABLE EDUCATION PROGRAMS**

### **Low Access to Education at all Levels.**

7. The low level of educational development in SSA severely constrains economic growth and poverty reduction. Unless special action is taken, many SSA countries will not achieve the Beijing goals or the DAC goals for education - 15 countries in SSA out of 18 countries world wide are unlikely to achieve 100% completion of primary education by 2010 while another 18 out of 34 countries identified as unlikely to achieve 60% entry into secondary school by 2010 are in SSA.

8. *Primary education* - Between 1960- 1980 the enrollment ratio grew from 36% to 81% then declined to 73% in 1990. (Chart 2). Only about 50% of those who enter grade one complete grade 5. While some countries are taking measures to reverse the decline, some 12 of them have enrollments of less than 50% (Map 1). As a result the average literacy rate is about 50%. The World Bank is in the process of establishing a special action program for these 12 countries which will support governments to accelerate the pace of primary school expansion. Proposed action includes: (i) policy actions to increase priority to basic education, (ii) external support to governments to address intractable policy/technical barriers that have hindered the development of basic education (iii) strengthening the effectiveness of external assistance to education and (iv) increasing the synergy between the World Bank and other development partners.

9. *Secondary education* - Enrollment in secondary school is about 24% of the relevant age group. This is as compared to 46% enrollments for all developing countries. In many countries the expansion of high quality general education, especially in science education streams is important in order to provide the necessary middle level manpower.

10. *Higher education* - There are about 150 universities in SSA with average enrollments of 6,000. Only a dozen are private mainly linked to international religious organizations. Tertiary

**Table 1 Gross Enrollment Rate for Primary Level: Selected African Countries**

Country	M (%)	F (%)	Country	M (%)	F (%)
Burkina Faso	47	30	Mozambique	69	52
Burundi	76	62	Niger	37	21
Cameroon	109	93	Nigeria	100	79
Chad	62	30	Rwanda	78	76
Côte d'Ivoire	81	58	Senegal	65	47
Ethiopia	27	19	Somalia	n/a	n/a
Ghana	83	70	Sudan	59	45
Guinea	49	25	Tanzania	71	69
Kenya	93	91	Uganda	78	63
Madagascar	77	74	Zaire	78	61
Malawi	74	62	Zambia	83	79
Mali	19	19			

Source: World Education Report, 1995/  
UNESCO Statistical Yearbook, 1995

education in SSA is growing at 4% of the relevant age group compared to 15% for the Arab states

**Table 2 Gross Enrollment Rate for Secondary Schools**

Countries identified by the World Bank as needing special targeted assistance to meet the World Bank-supported Beijing goals.

**Gross Enrollment Rate: By Gender**

Country	M (%)	F (%)
Burkina Faso	11	6
Burundi	8	5
Cameroon	32	23
Chad	n/a	n/a
Côte d'Ivoire	32	16
Ethiopia	12	11
Ghana	44	28
Guinea	17	6
Kenya	33	25
Madagascar	15	15
Malawi	5	3
Mali	10	5
Mozambique	9	6
Niger	9	4
Nigeria	30	25
Rwanda	11	9
Senegal	27	17
Somalia	n/a	n/a
Sudan	24	19
Tanzania	6	5
Uganda	14	8
Zaire	31	14
Zambia	24	15

**Gross Enrollment Rate: Total**

Country	M (%)
Burkina Faso	8
Burundi	7
Cameroon	28
Chad	9
Côte d'Ivoire	24
Ethiopia	11
Ghana	36
Guinea	12
Kenya	29
Madagascar	15
Malawi	4
Mali	7
Mozambique	7
Niger	7
Nigeria	27
Rwanda	10
Senegal	17
Somalia	n/a
Sudan	21
Tanzania	5
Uganda	11
Zaire	23
Zambia	19

Sources: World Education Report, 1995/ UNESCO Statistica; Yearbook, 1995

and 18% for Latin America. As public resources have become constrained, most universities have been starved of resources for qualitative expansion leading to a major decline in the quality of programs. The most urgent need is to selectively expand tertiary education and to revitalize it in order to create the requisite intellectual leadership that will help the region bridge the gap and integrate with the rest of the world. A key challenge is to manage the political economy of reform in higher education in a manner that helps move finances away from regressive transfers to students towards teaching, science, technology and research. Several countries are in the process of exploring sustainable ways of reducing the role of the public sector in the financing of higher education.

## **Gender Equity**

11. Educating girls remains one of the most important investments and yet many of the education programs in SSA are characterized by a large gender gap. The challenge is not just enrolling girls in school but enabling them to complete the cycle once they are enrolled.

## **Low and Declining Quality**

12. At all levels of education, quality of education is a major constraint to achieving the full benefits of education. Quality has become increasingly eroded by a combination of factors that include, inadequate funding and slow economic growth. This has led to a shortage of learning materials, effective teacher training programs, outdated curricula, a large regional and gender gaps and graduate unemployment. It manifests itself in high repetition levels (see Map 2), low levels of completion only about 50% of those who enter grade one complete grade 5.

## **What would all this Cost?**

13. The foregoing indicate that SSA deserves an education system it cannot afford. UNICEF estimates that the achievement of UPE over the next decade in SSA would cost a total of US\$25 billion. This would require an additional allocation of approximately 0.7% of GNP to primary education excluding costs of construction. This means that primary education budgets would need to increase on average 5-6% per annum over the next decade. This will not be feasible in many countries. On average, SSA countries spend 4.4% of GNP on education which is higher than other developing countries (see Chart 3 & 4, Map 3 & 4 and Table 3 & Chart 4). These estimates hide wide differences, for example, low enrollment countries such as Niger or Ethiopia which would need an average of 2% increase in GNP while Zambia or Uganda would require less than 0.5% of GNP. How then do countries develop comprehensive, robust education systems in a context of severe resource constraints?

## **OPPORTUNITIES FOR DEVELOPING SUSTAINABLE EDUCATION PROGRAMS <sup>1</sup>**

### **Forging Effective Partnerships**

14. About 90% of recurrent education costs are financed by the countries themselves. No external effort can substitute for this effort. External partners have an important role, however, to support initiatives which enable Africans to gain control over their education systems, to promote Africa-led efforts to improve quality and to develop and implement programs from locally owned strategies. This requires fostering partnerships between governments and the private sector; south-south cooperation, regional cooperation, and country-led donor coordination. Some of these partnerships have proved very effective. Examples include the Association for the Development of African Education (ADEA) represented at this conference; Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) which supports policies for the promotion of girls and women's education, and the Sector Investment Program (SIP). Currently, SSA is implementing several SIPs. SIPs have proved effective in enabling countries to develop their education systems in a coordinated and balanced manner because they: (i) are country led; (ii), they situate the education investment in a macro-economic and sustainable sector policy framework (iii) and are developed in coordination with external partners all of whom agree to provide their support within this framework. The recently launched UN initiative aims to increase the attention and support given to Africa by the international community and to accelerate the process of development. One of the components of this initiative supports basic education.

#### **Ethiopia: An opportunity for collaboration**

JICA would be a welcome partner in Ethiopia for support of the Government's proposed sector development programs in education and health. The forthcoming March 12 - 14 Government-donor workshop in Ethiopia will provide an opportunity for JICA to explore different avenues for its support of these programs.

The workshop will discuss Government's proposed sector programs for health and education, review international experience with implementation arrangements for sector programs, and develop a series of next steps for donors to work with the Government in preparing the two sector programs for financing.

<sup>1</sup>

Table 5 summarizes the World Bank program on education in SSA and highlights some of the key issues per country. Current World Bank portfolio comprises 48 projects with a total credit amount of US\$4.54 billion. Projects support all levels of education.

A starting point could be identification of a consultant to join a Government-donor team for identification mission in early May. We anticipate donors working in partnership with Government counterparts to prepare components of the program. JICA could easily identify in the March workshop a component area where it could take a lead role in preparation of the component for financing.

There is a lot of flexibility for JICA to join the Government-led partnership and work on its own priority areas with assurance that parts will add up to a coherent program of support for education and/or health.

### **Capacity building:**

15. Helping countries develop their capacities to establish sustainable policies and investment programs to promote basic education and quality improvements is a key element to sustainability. This includes support to institutional development, the strengthening of managerial, administrative and planning capacity both at the central and local levels. A major bottleneck to effective planning and management of education programs is a lack of accurate and comprehensive data on the status and performance of the education system. External support for well coordinated programs for data collection, analysis and dissemination, especially if funded at a sub-regional level would be an important input into capacity building. Capacity building would also include support to selective training and development of nationals, and support to the development of alternative and non traditional methods of education delivery that might be more cost effective.

### **Supporting Education Reform**

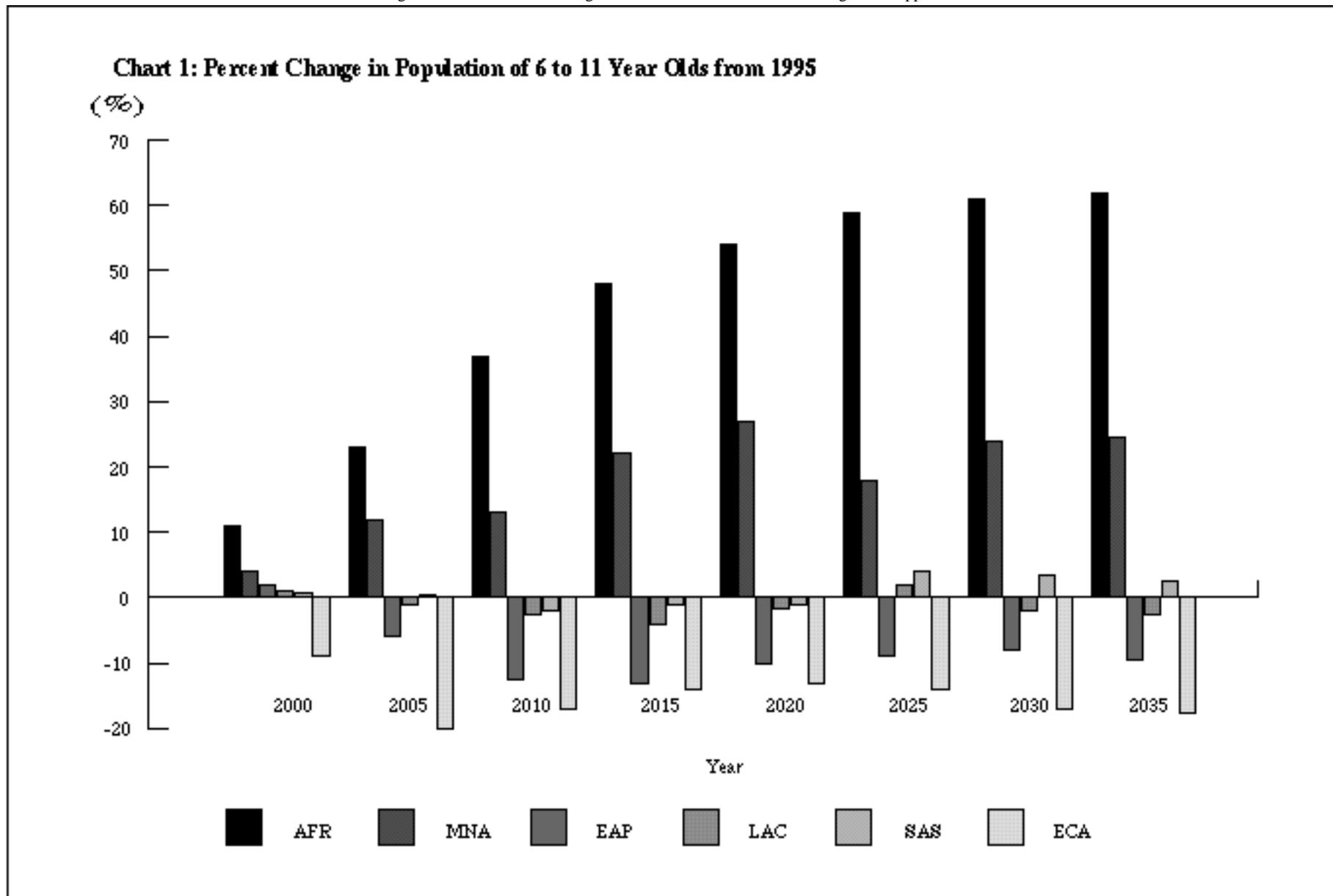
16. At the heart of sustaining education programs under conditions of fiscal constraint is the need to support reform that:

- promotes sound economic policies which will in turn create the enabling environment for full utilization of skills;
- provides sufficient funds to develop balanced education programs. Given the high level of public expenditure on education in many countries, extra funding would need to be mobilized from communities, the private sector and external partners (who under certain circumstances would need to support recurrent current costs). Investment in high quality basic education is absolutely key not just as a pre-requisite to poverty reduction and also because it establishes strong foundations for post-primary education and training. This should, however, be developed in the context of broad based education at all levels.

- ensures that resources are utilized for improving learning outcomes -- in many countries in SSA more than 80% of the education recurrent budget covers salaries and emoluments and student welfare. This squeezes out learning materials, teacher training funds and funds for school maintenance. The political economy of qualitative reforms requires sharper instruments for measuring and monitoring learning outcomes as well as a better understanding of the qualitative outcomes of education investment.
- there is distributional efficiency in the allocation of resources -- Data for eight SSA countries show that the 20% of the population with the highest income receive on average 34% of public education expenditures while the poorest 20% receive only 12%. For countries such as Colombia or Malaysia the distribution is the reverse - about 28% for the poorest 20% and 11% for the richest. In addition, unit costs for secondary education are on average 3 times those of primary while at the university level, they are more than 20 times those at the primary level.

## Tables and Annexes

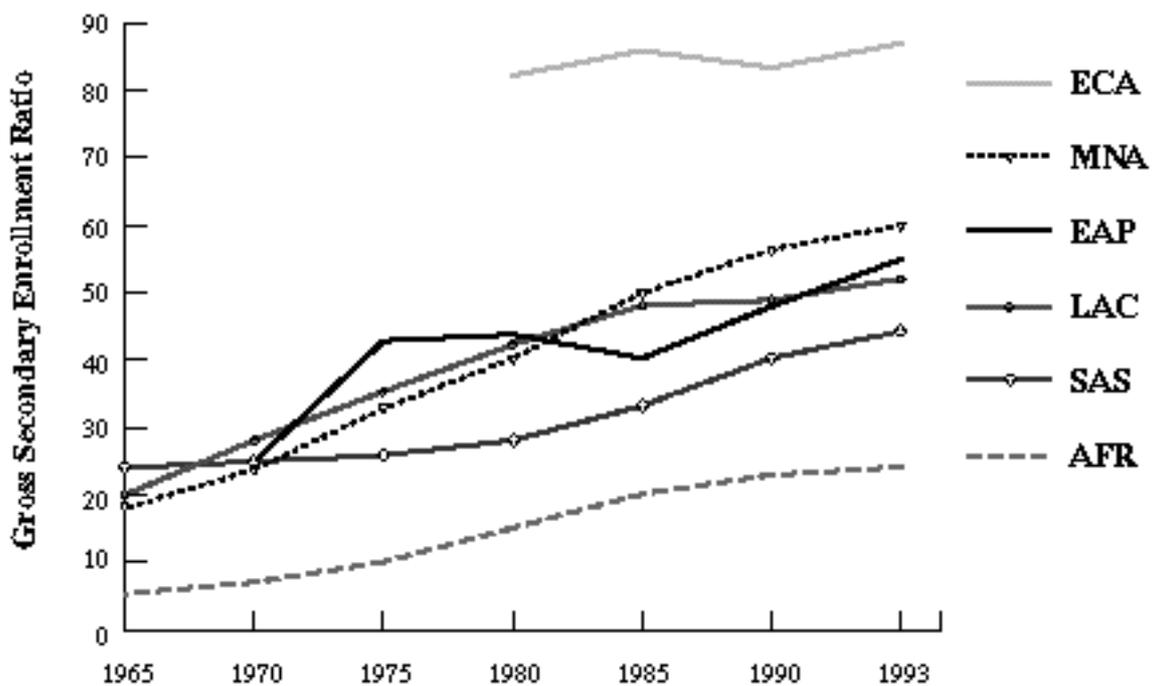
Chart 1:	Percent Change in Population of 6 to 11 Year Olds from 1995
Chart 2:	Gross Primary and Secondary Enrollment Ratio by Region
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Chart 4:	Per Student Recurrent Expenditure as % of GNP
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Table 1:	Gross Enrollment Rate for Secondary Schools
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Table 3:	Public Recurrent Expenditure per Student
Table 4:	Estimated Costs of Achieving Beijing Goals for Education
Table 5:	World Bank Education Projects in the Africa Region



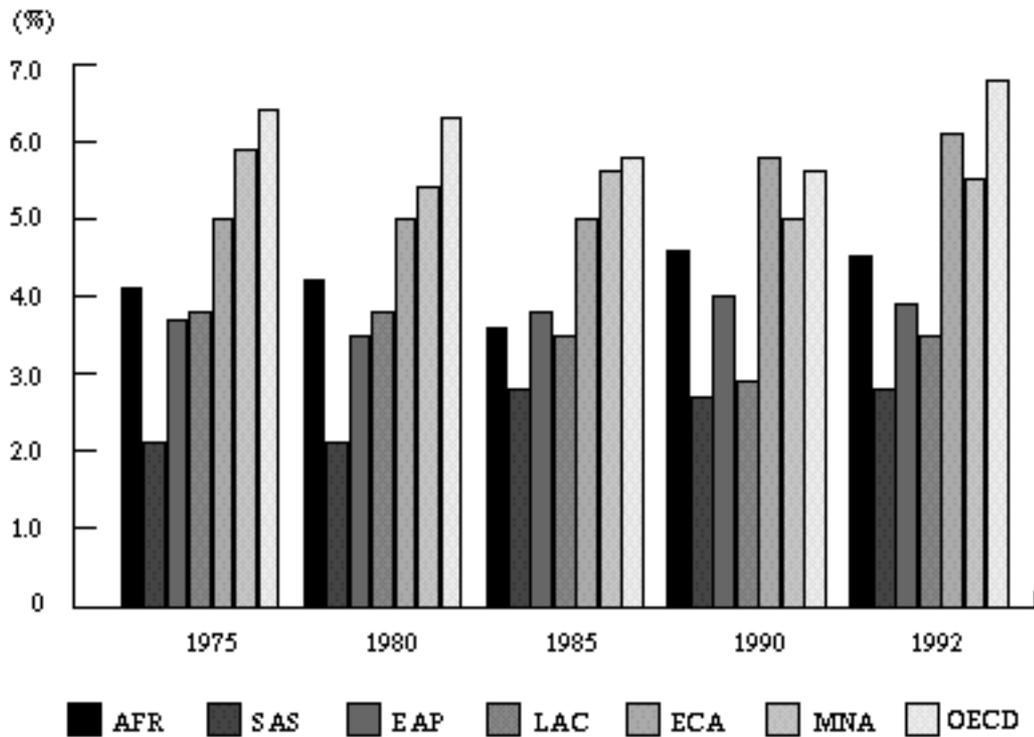
**Chart2:Gross Primary Enrollment Ratio by Region**



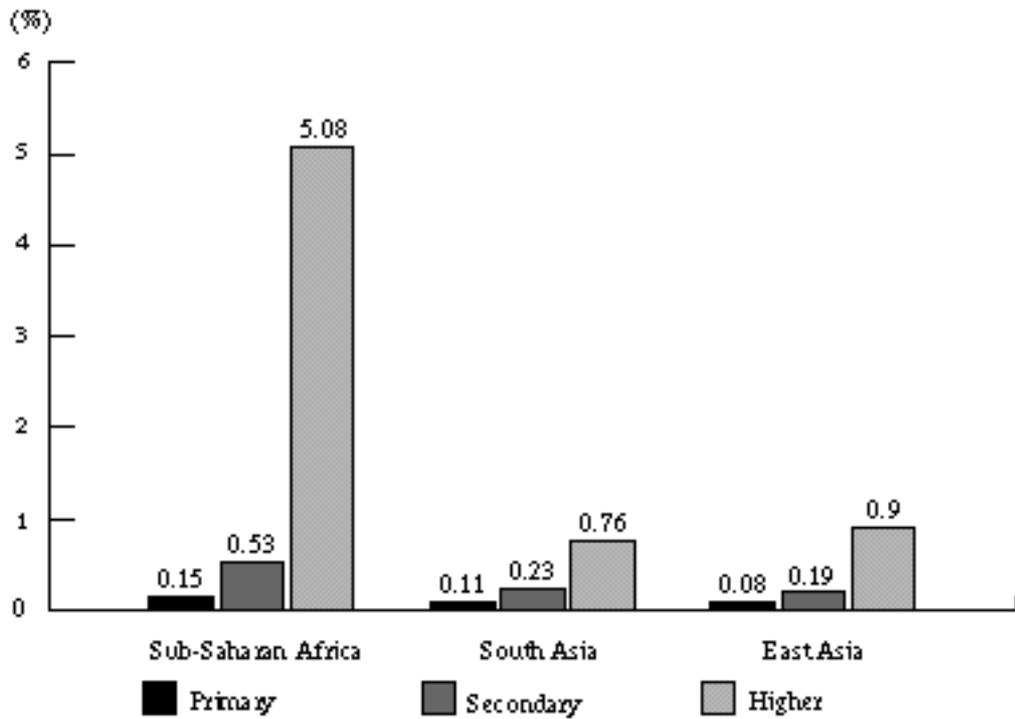
**Gross Secondary Enrollment Ratio by Region**



**Chart3: Public Expenditure on Education, % GNP**

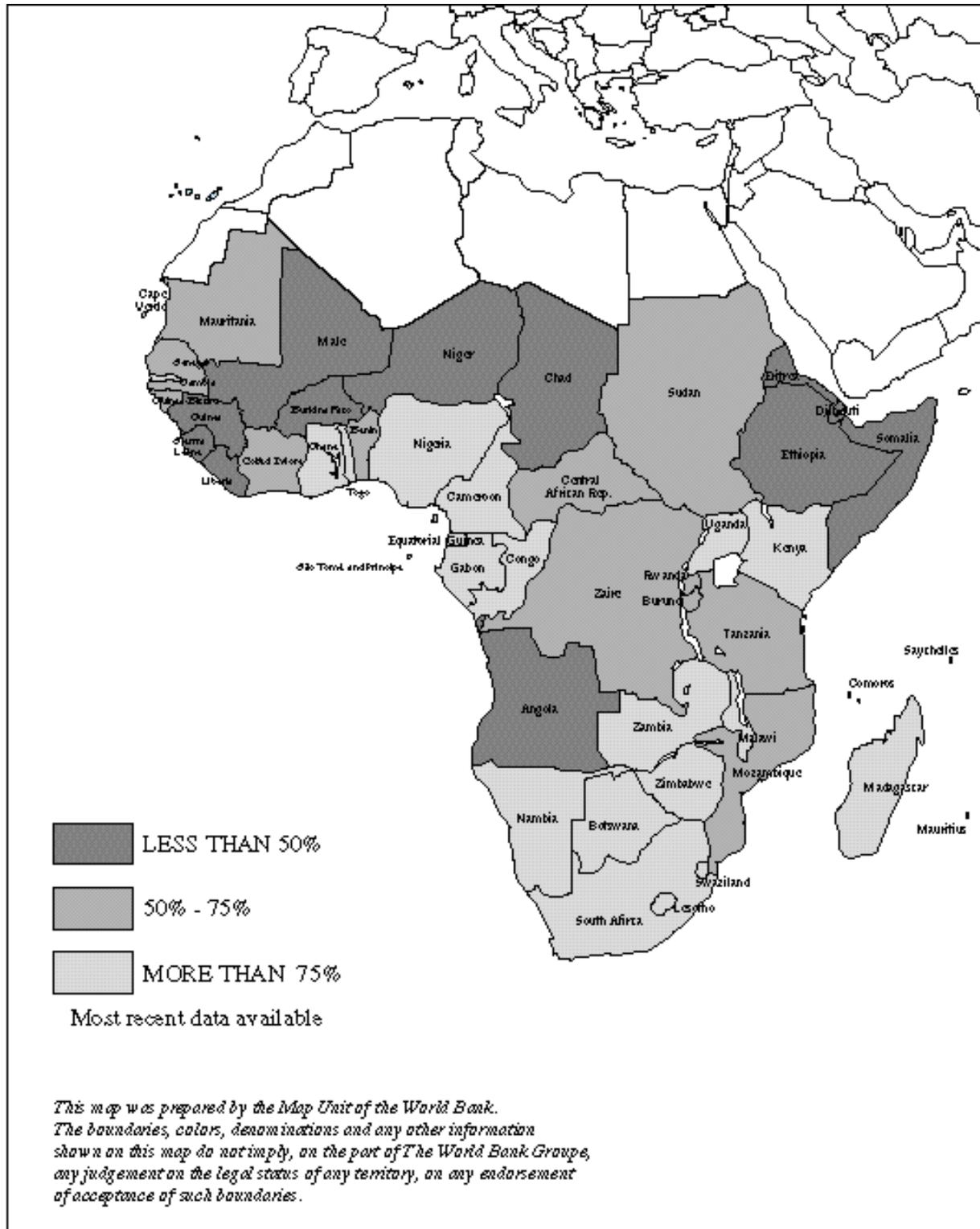


**Chart4: Per Student Recurrent Expenditure (as % of GNP, 1992)**



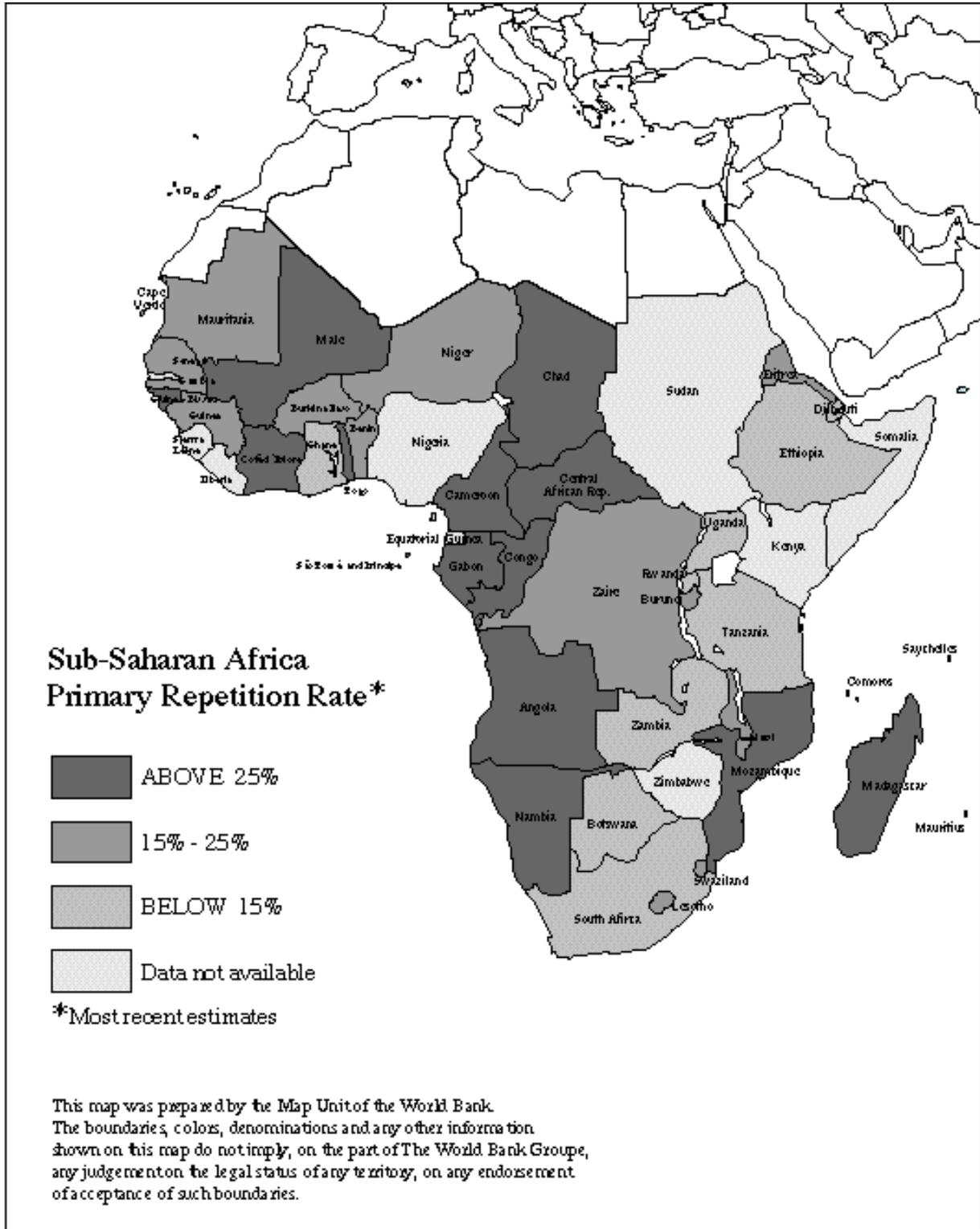
**MAP 1**

**Sub-Saharan Africa Primary School Enrollment Ratio**



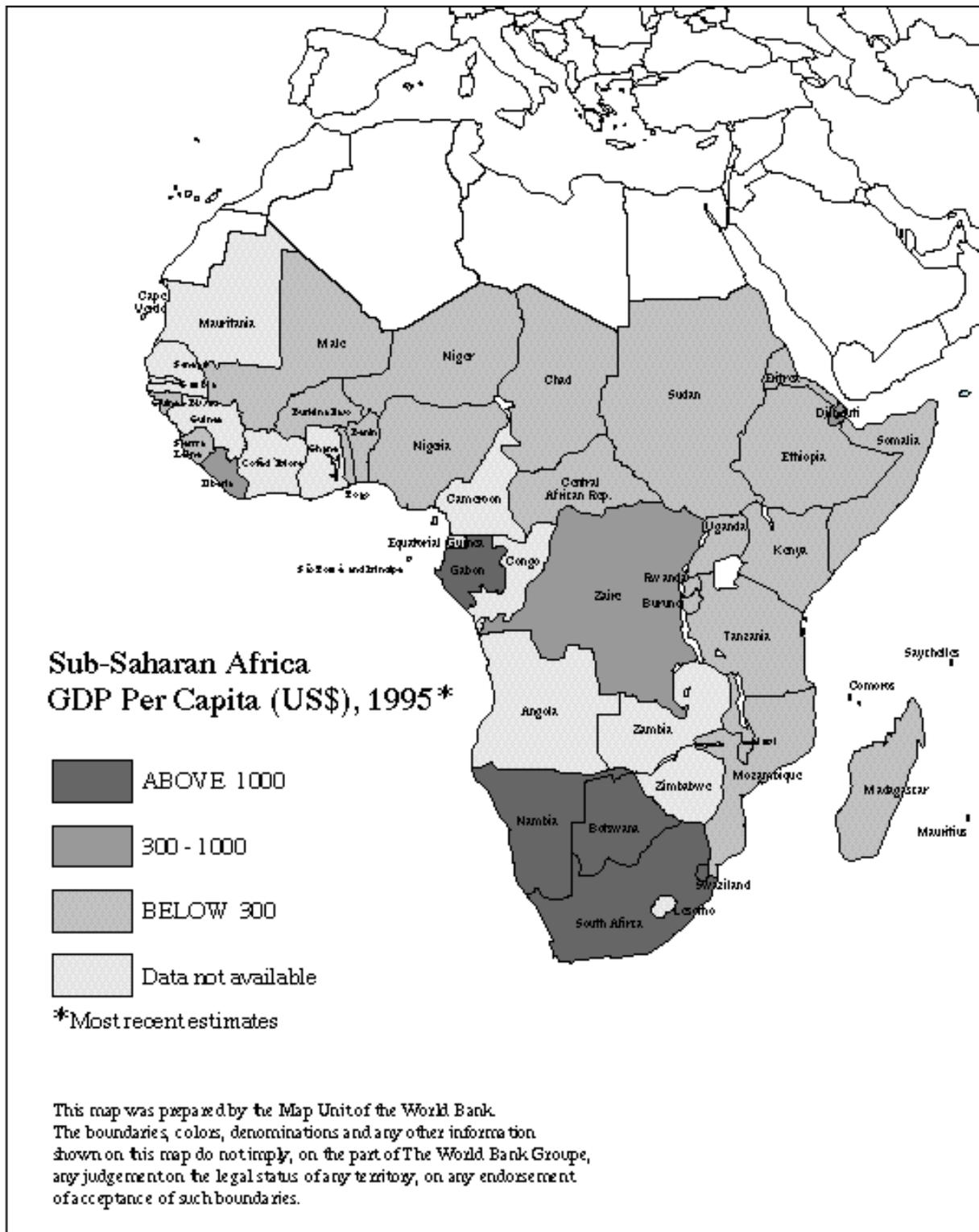
**MAP 2**

**Sub-Saharan Africa Primary Repetition Rate**



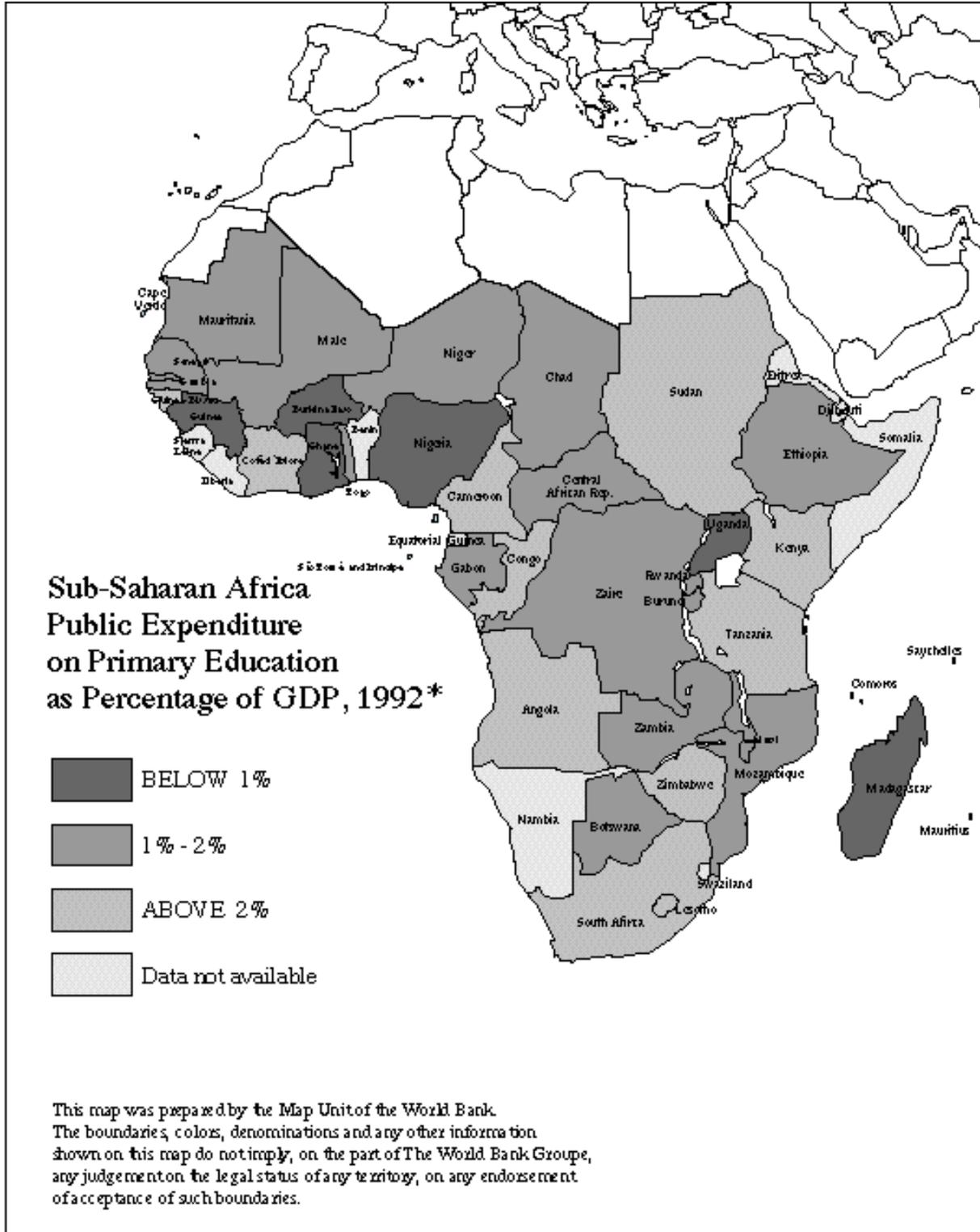
**MAP 3a**

**Sub-Saharan Africa GDP per Capita (US\$), 1995**



**MAP 3b**

**Sub-Saharan Africa Public Expenditure on Primary Education as Percentage of GDP, 1992**



**Table 3: Public recurrent expenditure per student  
Selected Sub-Saharan Africa Countries****(Constant 1990 US Dollars)**

County	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary	
	1980	1990	1980	1990	1980	1990
Botswana	174	219	779	1302	7999	7218
Burkina Faso	71	61	319	201	9114	4007
Burundi	45	27	417	245	2780	2280
Central African Rep.	100	45	126	88	3135	1726
Ethiopia	26	51	90	77	1749	851
Lesotho	43	37	361	223	3141	987
Kenya	52	46	113	162	3322	2342
Malawi	16	15	289	192	2973	1782
Mali	96	107	243	830	2751	2618
Mauritania	167	86	972	406	2875	2020
Rwanda	41	54	415	182	3329	4050
Senegal	191	116	530	258	3676	2681
Sierra Leone	31	6	122	35	3672	777
Swaziland	74	70	268	246	1053	2316
Tanzania	11	12	193	132	1809	1412
Togo	45	46	180	189	4858	1398
Zambia	56	16	321	138	3084	865
Zimbabwe	143	126	761	233	2398	806

Source: DAE, 1994

**Table 4: Estimated Costs of Achieving Beijing Goals for Education**

100% completion of primary cycle

Country	% of primary school-age children entering/completing primary school			estimated coverage %		Population 6-11 1995	Population 6-11 2010	Additional pupils to be covered per year by 2010	Additional pupils to be covered per year by 2010	Estimated unit cost per year	Total Additional cost per year by 2010	Total Additional cost per year	Additional cost per year by 2010	Additional cost per year
	grade 1	1995	2010	1995	2010	(thousands)	(thousands)	(thousands)	(thousands) A	per year	(millions) M	(millions) A	(millions) M	(millions) A
Bangladesh	8	46	100	72	100	19,395	19,085	5,111	3,424.30	25	128	9	86	6
Brazil	100	20	100	60	100	21,249	18,645	5,896	2,947.80	355	2,093	140	1,046	70
China	100	85	100	93	100	128,394	114,523	(4241) B	(2,290.38)	40	(170)	-41	(93)	(6)
Egypt	8	88	100	93	100	8,808	8,401	205	115.08	70	14	1	8	1
India	100	62	100	81	100	129,157	134,192	29,575	19,815.14	40	1,183	79	793	53
Indonesia	100	77	100	89	100	25,974	24,708	1,721	929.35	80	138	9	74	5
Mexico	100	72	100	86	100	12,909	12,868	1,766	883.13	365	645	43	322	21
Nigeria	89	32	100	70	100	19,002	25,185	11,827	6,386.36	35	650	43	331	23
Pakistan	77	37	100	57	100	21,883	27,109	14,640	9,808.84	60	878	59	589	39
Africa	6	37	100	50	100	101,839	146,665	24,736	31,157.17	50	4,737	316	2,538	171
										30	2,842	189	1,535	102
Developing countries	25	67	100	81	100	603,025	656,742	168,292	100,975.05	135	22,719	1515	13,652	909

A Calculated as the average of percent entering grade 1 and percent completing primary.

B It appears China will have to increase spending to reach 100 percent coverage due to its contracting school-age population.

C Calculated for each country based on girls representing 54% of out-of-school primary-aged children in Africa, 56% in Arab countries, 50% in Latin America, 54% in East Asia, and 67% in South Asia according to UNESCO Trends and Projections of Enrollment, 1993.

M Compared with spending in base year 1995.

A Compared with spending previous year.

**Notes:**

Percent completing is projected using reconstructed cohort analysis, but is very close to actual percent completing 4 years except for a 19% difference in Brazil due to its primary cycle ending after 8 years rather than 5 or 6, Indonesia and Nigeria (8% difference), Mexico (9% difference).

Costs are expressed in 1994 US dollars.

Sources: UNESCO World Education Report 1993 for percent entering grade 1 and completing primary, staff estimates for unit costs based on unit cost as a share of per capita GNP from UNESCO 1993 and Tan and Mingst 1992, GNP per capita from World Bank WDR 1993, 6-11 year old population from World Bank (HDD) data, and CPI from IMF database.

## Financing Sustainable Education Programs in Sub-Saharan Africa: Challenges and Opportunities

Percent of population continuing to secondary education and costs

Country	% of primary school age children completing primary and continuing to secondary		Population 6-11 1995	Population 6-11 2010	Additional pupils continuing to secondary, 2010	Additional girls continuing to secondary, 2010	Estimated unit cost per year of secondary	Total additional cost per year for girls by 2010	Incremental Cost per year
	1995	2010	(thousands)	(thousands)	(thousands)	(thousands) <sup>a</sup>	(1994 US\$)	(1994 US\$ million) <sup>b</sup>	(1994 US\$ million) <sup>c</sup>
	Estimated	Assumed							
Bangladesh	42	57	19,395	19,085	2,731	1,366	35	75	5
Brazil	14	29	21,249	18,645	2,432	1,216	420	511	34
China	21	66	128,394	114,323	101,04	5,052	60	308	20
Egypt <sup>d</sup>	62	77	8,808	8,401	1,012	506	190	96	6
India	22	67	129,157	134,192	22,723	11,362	35	625	42
Indonesia	48	63	25,974	24,708	3,108	1,551	135	240	16
Mexico	46	58	12,909	12,868	1,912	956	430	411	27
Nigeria	21	36	19,002	25,185	5,051	2,326	185	467	31
Pakistan	26	41	21,883	27,109	5,420	2,710	130	332	23
Africa	13	28	101,859	146,663	27,640	13,820	190	2,626	175
							115	1,589	106

<sup>a</sup> Estimated at one-half the total in line with Goal B (though probably only one-third the total at present).

<sup>b</sup> Compared with base year 1995.

<sup>c</sup> Above spending in previous year.

Note: The equation for additional pupils is Population (6-11) in 2010 × percentage continuing to secondary 2010 - Population (6-11) in 1995 × percent continuing to secondary in 1995.

**Table 5: World Bank Supported Education Projects in the Africa Region: 1990-2000  
Basic and Secondary Education Projects**

Country	On-going Projects	Planned Projects*	Key Sectoral Issues
Angola	* Education I (1992-98)	* Education II (2000) * Labor Force skills Dev.(2000)	* Decades of civil war has damaged as much as 75% of rural education facilities; urban facilities are over-congested. * Shortage of trained teachers; scarcity of instructional materials. * Inadequate resources flow to education. Sustained peace and economic recovery is needed so that resources, previously pre-empted for defense, can be shifted to education and health services (now only 8% of pub. exp.);
Benin	* Education Dev.(1994-00)	* Labor Force Training (1998)	* Low primary(53%)and secondary(11%)enrollment; but Government committed to increasing enrollment, especially of girls. * 35% of national budget on education; 64.5% of education budget on primary education; * Shortage of teachers. * Decentralized system beleaguered by weak capacity
Burkina Faso	* Education IV (1991-98) * Post-Primary Education (1997-02)	* Basic Education Sector (1998)	* Low primary(31%)and secondary enrollment rates. * Shortage of education facilities, instructional materials and teachers. * Higher education does not meet skills demanded by the labor market, therefore high unemployment of graduates
Burundi	* Education Dev.(1994-00)	* Education V (1998)	* Primary enrollment rate(70%)in a falling trend since early 1990s. * Reconstruction of facilities damaged in the 1993 civil unrest. * Gender, urban-rural and ethnic inequality in participation rate and performance
Cameroon		* Education V (1998) * Vocational Ed. & Training (1999)	* High(90%)but falling primary enrollment due to declining quality and economic crisis. * Increasing share of untrained teachers (as much as 1/3 in some provinces). * Problems in managing a dual language(anglophone and francophone) education system.
Cape Verde			* High enrollment(117%)but wide urban-rural disparity. * Low quality, low internal efficiency-repetition rates 19% for primary and 20% for secondary.
C.A.R.	* Basic Education & Training (1995-01)	* Basic Education (1999)	* Declining primary enrollment in early 1990's due to teacher unrest. * Low enrollment for girls. * Weak Capacity for monitoring and evaluation.

\*Note: These are notional, actual project size and scope would be finalized on the basis of country needs and realities during project appraisal.

## Financing Sustainable Education Programs in Sub-Saharan Africa: Challenges and Opportunities

Country	On-going Projects	Planned Projects	Key Sectoral Issues
Chad	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Basic Education V (1993-99)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education SIP (1999)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Low primary enrollment rate(59%); girls 31%.</li> <li>+ Low quality, low internal efficiency-repetition rate of 36%.</li> <li>+ Poor implementation capacity.</li> </ul>
Comoros		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education V(1998)</li> <li>+ Vocational Ed. &amp; Training (2000)</li> </ul>	
Congo		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education (2000)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ High but declining enrollment.</li> <li>+ Low quality of learning, low internal efficiency-repetition rate of 39%.</li> </ul>
Cote d'Ivoire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Human Res. Dev. Management Support (1993-98)</li> <li>+ Labor Force Training (1994-99)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Basic Education (1998)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ High adult illiteracy rate (60%); primary enrollment rate of 71%.</li> <li>+ Poor teacher quality, low internal efficiency.</li> </ul>
Djibouti		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education (2000)</li> </ul>	
Eritrea		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education (1998)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Extremely low literacy rate (20% for men, 10% for women) and low primary (42%) and lower secondary (19%) enrollment rates.</li> <li>+ Nomadic population and girls required to be targeted for increased enrollment.</li> </ul>
Ethiopia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education VII (1988-99)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education SIP (1998)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Low primary enrollment (29%); declining trend reversed.</li> <li>+ Weak capacity to implement decentralized delivery of education services.</li> <li>+ Additional demand on teaching manpower and book provision due to adoption of local languages as medium of instruction in earlier grades.</li> <li>+ Government commitment to substantially increase resources to achieve UFE in 20 years.</li> </ul>
Gambia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education Sector (1990-97)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education III (1999)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ High enrollment (100%), but-repetition rate of 33% and low rate of completion.</li> </ul>
Ghana	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Adult Literacy (1992-98)</li> <li>+ Education/Vocational Training(1993-98)</li> <li>+ Primary School (1993-98)</li> <li>+ Tertiary Education (1993-98)</li> <li>+ Basic Education (1996-01)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Literacy II (2000)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Significant improvements in access, physical inputs, and budget allocation over the past decade.</li> <li>+ Enrollments are increasing in both primary (7.8%) and secondary (44%), but are barely in pace with population growth(3.1 % p.a.).</li> </ul>

Country	On-going Projects	Planned Projects	Key Sectoral Issues
Guinea	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Equity &amp; School Improvement (1995-01)</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Enrollment has more than doubled in 5 years, but the rates are still low-primary (47%) and secondary (14%) enrollment.</li> <li>Low internal efficiency (21% repetition in primary; 26% in secondary).</li> <li>Education share of annual recurrent budget increased from 13% to 22-25% in the last five years.</li> </ul>
Guinea Bissau		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>School System Emergency (1998)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Weak Government commitment translated into underfunding of education (however, enrollment is quite high).</li> <li>Poor quality of teachers.</li> </ul>
Kenya	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Micro &amp; Small Enterprises (1994-01)</li> <li>Universities Investments (1992-98)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Early Childhood Dev. (1997)</li> <li>Education Sector (2001)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>High primary and secondary enrollment rates but recent decline, primary completion rates-70% for boys, 60% for girls.</li> <li>Decline in the quality of higher education due to rapid expansion without commensurate increase in financing.</li> <li>Regional disparities in access and quality.</li> </ul>
Lesotho	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Education Sector (1992-97)</li> </ul>		
Madagascar	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Education Sector Reinforcement (1990-97)</li> <li>Vocational Education (1992-98)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Education Sector (1998)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Falling primary and secondary enrollment since mid-1980s.</li> <li>Deteriorating quality of education.</li> </ul>
Malawi	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Education Sector II (1990-97)</li> <li>Primary Education Emergency (1996-99)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Education Sector III (1998)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>130% primary enrollment but declining.</li> <li>Severe strain on school facilities, shortage of trained teachers and insufficient supply of instructional materials to meet a surge of primary enrollment following 1994 abolition of school.</li> <li>Low secondary placements 5% in formal secondary and another 5% in distance education programs.</li> <li>Severe Financing constraints.</li> </ul>
Mali	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Vocational Education &amp; Training (1996-01)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Education SIP (1998)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Extremely low primary (25%) and secondary (7%) enrollment rates.</li> <li>Low internal efficiency-repetition rate of 31% at primary and 26% at secondary.</li> <li>Limited Government resources need to be supplemented with mobilization of non-public financing.</li> </ul>
Mauritania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Education V (1995-01)</li> <li>Technical &amp; Vocational (1993-98)</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Primary enrollment rate of 76%; secondary enrollment 14%.</li> <li>Inadequate funding for primary education.</li> </ul>

Country	On-going Projects	Planned Projects	Key Sectoral Issues
Mauritius	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Industrial and Vocational Training (1992-98)</li> <li>+ Education Sector Dev. (1993-99)</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Universal Primary Education achieved during 1980s; secondary education enrollment rate 63%.</li> <li>+ Need to improve in quality and quantity to meet the demands of rapidly growing economy, and to enable it to progress toward greater technological sophistication.</li> <li>+ Need to increase secondary enrollment (target 75% by 2000).</li> </ul>
Mozambique	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education II (1991-97)</li> <li>+ Capacity Building (1993-99)</li> <li>+ Legal and Public Sector Capacity (1993-99)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education Sector (1999)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Large portion of education facilities at all levels were damaged during the extended civil unrest and require reconstruction.</li> <li>+ Over-emphasis on facilities pre-empt resources for other essential education inputs such as trained teachers and instructional materials.</li> <li>+ Rural-urban disparity in access and performance.</li> </ul>
Namibia		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education I (1998)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Primary enrollment rate of 65% and secondary 20%.</li> <li>+ Low internal efficiency-high repeat rate (22% primary, 30% secondary); sparsely populated areas, and high cost of higher education; inadequate resources of black African children.</li> <li>+ High and growing unemployment among black youth in rural and urban areas.</li> </ul>
Niger	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education Sector Adj. (1994-00)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Post-Primary Education (1999)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Extremely low adult literacy(14%); low primary (29%) and secondary (7%) enrollment rates.</li> <li>+ A small, elitist system; need to expand access to primary education to benefit the masses.</li> </ul>
Nigeria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Primary Education (1991-97)</li> <li>+ Univ. Education (1991-97)</li> <li>+ Early Childhood Dev. (1993-99)</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Declining enrollment.</li> <li>+ Gender, regional, and urban-rural inequality in participation and performance.</li> <li>+ Weak sectoral planning and implementation.</li> </ul>
Rwanda	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education Sector (1991-98)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education (2000)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Need to re-open schools disrupted by civil strife.</li> <li>+ Expand access to primary and lower-secondary education</li> </ul>
Senegal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Human Resource Dev. II (1993-99)</li> <li>+ Higher Education (1996-03)</li> <li>+ Pilot Female Literacy (1996-03)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Education Sector (2000)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Low primary (59%) and secondary (16%) enrollment rates; Enrollment growth begun to exceed population growth in 1995.</li> <li>+ High illiteracy (56%) relative to Senegal's per capita income, particularly among women (66%).</li> <li>+ Persistent shortage of teachers and poor personnel management</li> </ul>

Country	On-going Projects	Planned Projects	Key Sectoral Issues
Sierra Leone		+ Education IV (1998)	
Somalia	+ Education Rehabilitation (1990-98)	(Operation suspended due to continuing civil unrest)	
Tanzania	+ Education Planning & Rehabilitation (1990-98)	+ Human Resource Dev. (1998) + Training (2001)	+ Universal Primary Education achieved in late 1970s but has now fallen below 60%; limited access to secondary education (8%). + Poor quality of primary teachers (2/3 untrained); inadequate supply of + Overly centralized decision-making.
Togo	+ Vocational Education & Training (1991-98) + Education Rehabilitation (1995-01)	+ Education & Training (1999)	+ Declining primary enrollment. + Wide regional and gender disparities. + Inadequate budget allocation for non-salary inputs.
Uganda	+ Primary Education and Teacher Development (1993-00)	+ Education Sector (1999)	+ Low primary (58%) and secondary (13%) enrollment rates. + Low internal efficiency; only 30% of the cohort complete primary education. + Weak implementation capacity but strong commitment by the leadership towards UPE. + Decentralized budget allocation resulted in a wide disparity in education financing between districts.
Zambia	+ Education Rehabilitation (1993-98)	+ Education Sector (1998)	

## DISCUSSION I

**Ms. Yokozeki:** Now, we would like to ask the members of the panel to make statements. We are discussing the current situation in terms of education in African countries and also one point we would like to raise is the school relevancy. We would like to ask Mr. Richard Sack to give his opinion about the school relevancy to start with.

**Mr. Sack:** Thank you very much. As Ms. Kagia pointed out, probably the most serious issue here is that of quality. Working on improving quality evokes a number of issues, or let's say that the issue of quality is an issue that has three sides, as I see it in any case. One side is indeed this question of relevance. And when we talk about the relevance of education, we are talking about a multifaceted concept. We know that relevance is transmitted by a number of aspects of the educational system; the curriculum which conveys presumably relevant or irrelevant materials; the language of instruction, which is clearly relevant or irrelevant to the daily lives of the early children; the organization of the school system -- is it appropriate, is it adapted to the conditions in which teachers, administrators, tax payers live?; linkages to the work force to the productive lives of the community, and indeed, the role of the community. All of these are factors that play a role in relevance. But the roles that these factors play are anything but perfectly clear, anything but scientifically clear. That's the problem with education. It is not scientifically founded in the same way that medicine is scientifically founded. We have no germ theory of learning, for example.

Another side to this issue is, are there new departures in teaching? Is it possible that with the new technologies we will be able to organize schooling in radically different ways? Or maybe we need to organize schooling in radically different ways so that it is in perfect harmony with communities, perfect harmony with communities that are, let's say, rural. Here we are talking about the methods of delivery of education.

And the third side to this issue as I see it is a different sort of reflection, and that is if you look around us, us meaning the whole world, and if you look at the history of schooling, of mass schooling, of schooling -- you know, 100% or 50% or 80% of an age cohort -- if we look around us throughout the history of mass schooling, we find incredible divergences, all the divergences you see throughout the world in cultural terms, in geographical terms, in climatic terms, in ideological, religious, economic, political and everything else you can imagine. The societies, communities, contexts have changed, have evolved radically. And yet when you look around you, when we look around us throughout the world, something strange happens. Schools seem to look alike all over the world. The curriculums may change, but even then not terribly much. So what we have is an interesting paradox. You have tremendous divergence around the world and even throughout the 150, 200 years of mass schooling, and rather impressive convergence of this

phenomenon we call mass schooling. When I say convergence, I mean you go to a school and you'll see basically a homogeneous age cohort of children sitting down in front of a teacher, in front of one adult authority figure with perhaps a few props such as a school board or what have you. They'll be studying by in large the same subjects, and the subjects will be very largely the same. Teaching math is teaching math, teaching science is teaching science.

So here we have the three sides to this issue. As far as I can see there is no truth. I haven't been able to figure out in any case what the perfect answer represents to these questions. And it's perhaps for this reason, because so many people have so many different opinions on the matter, and indeed, what does it take to be an expert in education? Very often all it takes is to have been to school oneself, and to be a parent, and one considers oneself an expert in education. And this is perhaps one of the reasons why it's so difficult for people to get together and coordinate their efforts as they work on and contribute to the development in education in any particular country or community. Thank you.

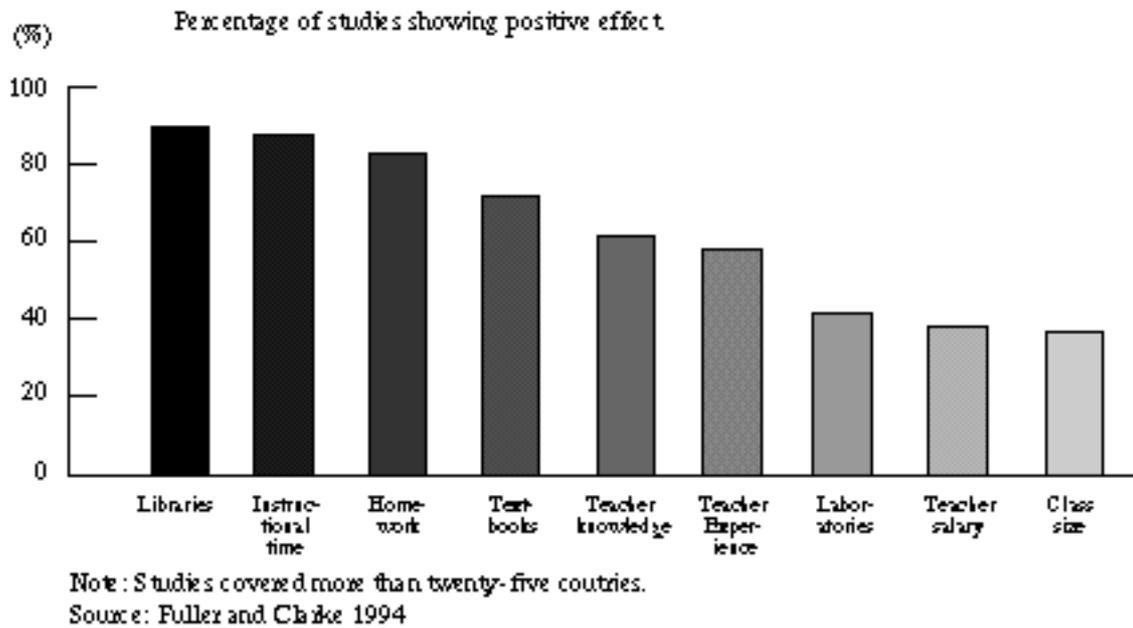
**Ms. Yokozeki:** Thank you very much, Mr. Sack. I suppose it relates to the school effectiveness. About this point would you make a comment?

**Mr. Allsop:** Thank you for this opportunity to talk about what is a growing field of literature on school improvement and our understanding of what makes a difference in schooling. There is great interest in this area but I should warn you, I think, that perhaps it should come with a government health warning, like cigarette sales because the quality of the literature is very varied. Most of the literature comes from the North and the methods used in many of the studies are questionable. But let's look for a moment at some of the evidence. On the overhead projector you will see a metanalysis by Fuller and Clarke of many studies which try to show the different effects of different inputs to the school system. Would you show these 5 graphes.

It looks easy, but it's very difficult to deliver. To say it is that teachers must be teaching pupils for a significant number of hours in the week, and that their classrooms should be rich in resources. And I don't mean elaborate resources. I mean textbooks and things with which children can write, and on which children can write. If we could guarantee that for all our children in Sub-Saharan Africa, we would change the world. That's the evidence from school improvement analysis as we have it. Thank you.

**Ms. Yokozeki:** Thank you very much. I think we can say from what has been said that the contents or what is taught in schools or classrooms is very important, as Ms. Aïcha Bah said and Mr. Utsumi said. In African countries there are a number of different languages

### Determinants of Effective Learning at the Primary Level



being used, so the question of language or language of instruction -- would you please make a comment, Ms. Kagia?

**Ms. Kagia:** This is a highly divisive, highly emotive issue. Sub-Saharan Africa has got between a thousand and two thousand languages depending on how you count them. A country like Tanzania has got a 120 languages, Kenya has got 48, Zambia has got 7, and so on and so forth. How does a national government organize its learning process to make sure that you take into account the linguistic, pedagogical value while at the same time, taking into account the political issues that language brings up.

Just to very quickly summarize, on the pedagogical side, as educators, there is no doubt that you learn best in the language that you understand best. When children go to school at six, seven or eight years, and suddenly they have got to learn in a language they have never encountered, learning becomes an impossible exercise. And it is not a surprise that the achievement levels of many children in Sub-Saharan Africa by grade five are so much lower than those of their counterparts in regions where the language of instruction is the same as the mother tongue. So there are very strong pedagogical reasons for using the language the children know best. But there are also equally powerful reasons why politically it becomes difficult. One is that you want to use education to create national cohesion. So when you let people operate in forty different languages, or whatever the number of languages are, how then do you forge national unity? Secondly, when you've got the languages that are spoken by as few as 5000 people, how many textbooks are you going to print, and how do you standardize education programs at a national level to make

sure that you don't introduce different equity problems? And these are dilemmas that many African governments are confronting for a long time through the 70s, the 80s. I think people just accepted -- let's educate in English, French, Portuguese, or whatever it is. Now, this is an issue that has come back into the forefront, and there was a ministers' conference late last year to discuss the issue. The World Bank is having a discussion of the issue, I think, on the 26th of this month, and all I can say at this point is we do not have any one solution, and what I would urge our partners to do is to respect the decision that the national government has made. If they have decided to operate in English, support that process as best as is feasible because it is one of those issues that doesn't have one. You solve one problem and you create others. And I think it is best left to the national governments to balance the trade-offs. Thank you.

**Ms. Yokozeki:** Thank you very much. Ms Aïcha Bah said in her keynote speech that when she was serving as the Minister of Education, she traveled all over the country talking with the task holders of education in order to promote educational reform. Can you tell us a little bit more about it, about those efforts?

**Ms. Diallo:** You have to do it because you have to convince the community. In order for the community to participate, you have to convince them. And the community you would like to create is an environment which is favorable for the schooling of the children. For this to happen, you have to do a lot of advocacy through campaigns by yourself or using the media. If the parents do not understand that education is important, they will not send their children to school. And the school has to belong to the community. The school should be the center of the community and the school should be used for formal education and for non-formal education. For instance, if you have some solar energy, you can use it at night for non-formal education. And you can also use distance education in order to deliver education for both parents and children and use it for teacher training also. And the parents in the community will be more interested in education if the program delivered is in national languages because it has to be in a context which respects the culture of the community. The socioeconomic cultural context is very important. They will be more interested if the education program delivered in national languages are integrated in the development programs such as population, water sanitation, and so on. Thank you.

**Ms. Yokozeki:** Thank you very much. Ms. Aïcha speaks in French. But your English is lovely, too. We have no trouble in comprehending it. It's been pointed out that issues about education are manifold and they are all wholly inter-related, and so much efforts are being made now in order to explore all those related issues so that education can be improved. I am sure we will be touching upon this in part two of the discussion.

### **3. PANEL DISCUSSION II.**

**“ New Approaches to Assistance for Expansion  
and Improvement of Basic Education  
in Sub-Saharan Africa ”**

# Donor Coordination: Old Ways, Mixed Results and New Approaches

**Richard Sack**

Executive Secretary

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1. The growing concern for effective donor coordination seems to be directly proportional to the decline in resources for official development assistance and the growth of “aid fatigue”. These factors appear to have prompted a number of agencies to see potential sources of efficiencies within the overall aid efforts to a given country. In spite of this, however, coordination-in-practice has not come easy. Often it appears that everybody wants to coordinate, and nobody wants to be coordinated.

2. Not surprisingly, efforts at coordination have taken a variety of forms, with a variety of results, mostly minimal. What follows is an overview of donor coordination practices and forms as they have evolved in the recent past.

## Forms of Coordination

### Information exchange

3. This is a long practiced form of donor coordination.<sup>1</sup> Initial efforts concentrated on issues related to educational innovations and existing reforms. This led to the realization that “information was simply not reaching educational decision-makers”. This, in turn, led to establishment of an International Educational Reporting Service within UNESCO's International Bureau of Education in Geneva that was supported by seven donors of the “Bellagio group”, with an emphasis on research.<sup>2</sup> IWGE—the informal “Working Group on Education” that is coordinated by the IIEP—is the current incarnation of this spirit.

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1

Kenneth King, *Aid & Education in the Developing World*, Longman, 1991. The history of “the inter-agency dimension of aid to education: the search for consensus” is outlined in pages 12-16.

2

King, op. cit. p. 13.

4. Forums and networking of various sorts have been the preferred strategy for this type of coordination. IDRC, for example, concentrated its efforts on coordinating research through the Research Review and Advisory Group (RRAG) which has become the Northern Policy, Review, Research, and Advisory Network on Education and Training (NORRAG).<sup>3</sup> The numerous meetings, journals, research reviews, etc. are testimony to the popularity and perceived usefulness of this approach to donor coordination.

### **Policies and/or priorities**

5. Global statements are available from several agencies. These statements written on the aggregate, global level (for the world, a continent or a region) provide clear indications of an agency's priorities. For example:

- (a) The World Bank has published documents that provide policy guidance of global or continent-wide import.<sup>4</sup> The thrust of the Bank's orientation derived from research and extensive policy analysis points towards priorities that favor, for example, the promotion of basic cognitive skill acquisition. This work has a coordinating effect to the extent to which other donors use it in establishing their own priorities.
- (b) The Coopération française has published a document that outlines its priorities for education in Africa.<sup>5</sup> In addition to indicating priorities for overall quality and efficiency, with emphasis on basic education, the French document identifies priorities in the areas of: (i) "évaluation" ( policy/sector analysis) in order to promote Governments' independent capacity for negotiating with the donors on whom they are largely dependent<sup>6</sup>; and (ii) a programmatic approach towards educational renovation that includes pedagogy, the structure of education systems and their management.
- (c) USAID operates under a Congressional mandate to put a major part of its resources for education into the basic education.

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<sup>3</sup> NORRAG's major activity appears to be the useful *NORRAG News*.

<sup>4</sup> *Education in Sub-saharan Africa: Policies for Adjustment, Revitalization, and Expansion*, 1988.  
*A World Bank Policy Paper Primary Education*, 1990.  
*A World Bank Policy Paper Vocational & Technical Education and Training*, 1991.  
*Higher Education—The Lessons of Experience*, 1994.  
*Priorities and Strategies for Education—A World Bank Review*. 1995.

<sup>5</sup> Ministère de la Coopération et du Développement, *Enseignement et Formation en Afrique Subsaharienne: Orientations de la Coopération française*. Paris, 1992.

<sup>6</sup> Otherwise, "la négociation des programmes d'urgence risque de tourner au monologue dès lors que l'un des négociateurs a le monopole du diagnostic, des propositions et du financement." Ministère de la Coopération et du Développement, op. cit., p. 14.

- (d) The African Development Bank and the Asian Development Bank have published statements relative to education.<sup>7</sup>
- (e) The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) publishes annual Human Development Reports (HRD) that attempt to look beyond the formation of human capital and examine its use for work, leisure or political and cultural activities. These Reports do not directly address educational issues but, rather, attempt to place human capital formation in a context broader than that of economic development and its usual statistical indicators.

6. Agency documents provide strong indication of existing and/or potential common ground for donor coordination around priorities that currently include an emphasis on primary education, qualitative improvements at all levels, and improved internal and external efficiency. One function of these statements is that the donor community at large is informed of the "official positions" and likely actions of other members of the community. Such documents have a strong coordinating effect.

7. The pervasiveness of the emphasis on basic education is noteworthy given the World Conference on Education for All that took place in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990. The event was sponsored and organized by several agencies as part of a strategy to provide legitimacy for increased support to basic education from both donor agencies and governments.<sup>8</sup> Such support could be measured by the extent to which agencies and governments alike have a common agenda concerning the primacy of basic education that includes priority actions for resource allocations and effective mechanisms for the delivery of educational services.

8. These documents appear to be designed for internal use within the agency itself and/or its larger institutional context (such as the agency's Government and legislature, as well as other agencies) as well as to inform the rest of the world of the agency's priorities. Certainly, they are discussed and debated at various meetings. In Africa, for example, agencies and governments alike are in a position to know that the World Bank is in favor of promoting access, efficiency and quality in primary education, improving system management, making higher education more internally and externally efficient, and shifting the financial burden toward students in the higher educational levels. What they do with this knowledge, however, is another matter.

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7

African Development Bank, Education Sector Policy Paper, 1986.

Asian Development Bank, *Education and Development in Asia and the Pacific*, 1988.

8

World Conference on Education for All, *Meeting Basic Learning Needs: a Vision for the 1990s Background Document*. Presumably, this reflects the common position of the Conference's four major sponsors UNDP, UNESCO, UNICEF and the World Bank.

## Policy/sector analysis

9. This can be, and is, conducted at country and more global levels. Two examples of the latter are Unesco's World Education Report<sup>9</sup> and the World Bank's 1988 Africa paper.<sup>10</sup> These reports contain descriptive and analytical information related to inputs (human and financial resources), processes (quality, internal efficiency, pedagogy, curricula, costs, management, planning), and outcomes (learning results, external efficiency). By and large, these documents provide aggregate statistics and analyses concerning the "state" of education, followed by statements of policy priorities consistent with the analysis. The work done in the context of ADEA and its associated working groups each sponsored by one or more agency is more varied and detailed and, therefore, likely to have a greater coordinating effect.

10. But to what use are these documents put? This is best treated as an empirical question, worthy of systematic research. Hypotheses could include:

- (a) Knowledge and use of this documentation vary according to the agency, roles of individual readers within agencies, and between agencies and their "clients" (i.e., recipient governments). On the whole, these documents are better known and used within the donor community than by "client" governments. A corollary would be that this documentation has differential impacts, depending on the situation of its readers/consumers.<sup>11</sup>
- (b) There is an observable, useful "shelf life" for such documentation that declines at differential rates depending on the audience (agency, academic, practitioners, "client" countries).
- (c) Rather than coordinating specific policies, strategies and/or actions, the cumulative impact is a coordinating effect in that they become unavoidable points of reference.

11. Policy/sector analysis conducted at the country level tends to be varied, problem specific and, often, related to the well defined needs of donor agencies and/or government. The primary objective of this work is to provide an objective basis and justification for project development. In the contemporary environment of adjustment and policy-based relations between donors and their

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**9**

UNESCO, *World Education Report*: 1991.

**10**

*Education in Sub-saharan Africa*, op. cit.

**11**

One World Bank report on sector studies (C. Thomas & M. Carnoy. *Review of Fiscal 1991 Education Sector Work*, World Bank Discussion Paper, Population and Human Resources Dept., Education and Employment Division, PHREE/92/50R. 1992) notes that there is an inordinate tendency for the weaker reports to rely on the recommendations of the Bank's policy papers without due consideration to the specifics of local situations.

"clients", this work becomes the basis for "dialogue". It establishes common descriptive and analytical ground for dialogue, project development and, where appropriate, policy negotiations. The archetypical example of this work is what the World Bank calls "sector work". Much of this work is restricted, intended for the Bank and concerned governments.<sup>12</sup>

### **Collaborative Partnerships**

12. This is best represented by the Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) which was originally founded in 1988 as a donors' club for improved coordination through information exchange on agencies' policies and activities. It has since evolved into a mechanism designed: (i) to reinforce African ministries' leadership capacities as they work with funding agencies; and (ii) to develop these agencies' awareness that their own practices should be adapted to the needs of nationally-driven education policies, programs and projects. In this respect, ADEA is an innovative mechanism that is now redefining how the two groups that comprise its membership—African ministries of education and training, and development agencies—relate to one another. ADEA's lack of formal structures—legally, administratively and physically, it is housed under the roof of the IIEP—mean that it can provide rapid responses to its varied constituency and changing environment. It also means that it is owned by all the actors in a spirit of collaborative partnership.

13. Actually, ADEA has several circles of coordination: (i) its Steering Committee that meets twice a year where agencies and ministers meet and discuss matters of substantive concern; (ii) its Biennial meetings where the external development community and most African ministers of education meet around a theme of common concern; and (iii) its Working Groups where ministries of education along with several agencies work together on topics and issues of substantive concern.

### **Operational activities**

14. Operational work occurs in the field and take the form of "projects". In recent years, coordination has taken the form of donor co-financing of programs and projects. In theory, it is at this level where real coordination is practiced, under the leadership of national governments. The object of donor activities is to have an impact in the field—for example, improving education in a given country. Therefore, it is at this level where coordination is put to the test and where its meaning takes real substance. However, it is this level where things often go awry and where each agency may go in its own direction. One reason for this is the lack of firm governmental leadership over the agencies.

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<sup>12</sup>  
King, op. cit., pp. 7-8.

## **Conclusion: typology & stages**

15. Before we address the issue of minimum requirements or criteria for fruitful coordination, let's think about the forms of coordination and their defining characteristics. This is why a typology of observed forms of coordination could be useful.

16. Are there stages of effective coordination? It is tempting to posit that the five types in the Table 1 are ordered by ascending levels of effectiveness. This assumes that maximum effectiveness is attained at the operational level, where things happen. Such a perspective would incite us to emphasize coordination at the country level. However, that can only happen if the interested parties—especially the various donors, each of which has its particularities—have some incentive for working together and knowledge of each others' agency.

## **Aspects of Effective Coordination**

17. An analytical understanding of effective coordination requires an exploration into institutional factors—the factors that make organizations tick and influence staff behavior. After all, an institution's behavior is (perhaps somewhat more than) the sum of that of the individuals working there who operate according to established rules, regulations, expectations, criteria and something called "institutional culture". Institutions under consideration here include donor agencies and their "client" governments. Factors include a combination of sociological, political, administrative and economic/financial concerns that define the life and operations of any institution. In addition to identifying pertinent factors, we need to examine the extent of their relevance to the issue of effective coordination.

## **Policies and priorities**

18. A number of agencies have well articulated positions on their policies and priorities (see paras 4~7). Theoretically, this provides a clear point of departure for coordination at the country level. A good example of this is the consensus on basic education. Other examples include project co-financing by several donors (see para.11). Inter-agency agreement on policies and priorities is a necessary condition for effective coordination; but probably not a sufficient condition.

## **Sociology of the organization**

19. This merits consideration for the following reasons.

**TABLE 1: TYPOLOGY-EXPLORATIONS in the FORMS and CHARACTERISTICS of DONOR COORDINATION**

<i>TYPE or FORM of COORDINATION</i>	<i>CHARACTERISTICS</i>				
	<i>Level</i>	<i>Areas of coordination (What is coordinated?)</i>	<i>Preferr ed means &amp; mechanisms (How?)</i>	<i>Responsibility (Who coordinates?)</i>	<i>End users / end use</i>
Information exchange	Global*	Research results and priorities; statistics; donor activities	International meetings; journals; papers; formal and informal networks	Lead agencies, sometime informally	General concerned public; agencies; researchers
Agency or inter-agency policy priorities	Global	Priorities and approaches	Meetings; policy statements	Lead agencies; ad hoc committees	Mostly agencies themselves
Policy analysis/ Sector work	Global	Descriptive & analytical information; approaches/agenda for policy analysis; Inter-agency dialogue	Agency documents; meetings	Those who produce the reports.	Agencies & governments, but differentially; agenda setting
	Country	same as above, but focused exclusively on a given country situation; Dialogue that is both intra-country, and country-agency	Country-specific sector work; national working groups; national seminars/workshops leading to consensus building at the country level	One agency; Government (e.g., ministry planning department)	Specific donors, for project development; Ministry, for policy development and intra-country dialogue (with other ministries & civil society)
Collaborative partnerships	Global & country	Policies, operations, research, agency and country priorities	Informal structures/mechanisms such as ADEA	Collective responsibility, with strong dialogue among members	Agencies and ministries
Operational activities	Country	Projects, investment programs, sector financing	Co-financing; complementary project financing; cross references to projects by other donors	Government; ad hoc donor groups; agency staff working in the field	Government development programs; Government & agency staff involved in implementation

\*Global = Multi-country, such as sub-regional, regional, continent-wide, the world...

- (a) The organizational mode of any institution plays an important role in the way it acts, reacts, and works with its external environment.
- (b) Coordination between institutions requires some understanding of the built-in constraints and potentials, and the comparative strengths and weaknesses, of one's own agency as well as those of other agencies. This is especially so since, in the last analysis, coordination at the operational level involves coordination between individuals with capacity to act. If staff members 'A' and 'B' in agencies 'Y' and 'Z' aim at operational coordination between their respective agencies, they need to think about the ways in which their agencies are organized and how the other is likely to act/react to any given material object of coordination (e.g., co-financing, collaboration on a study or on an entire project or on the same or complementary parts of a project, etc.); each one needs to know something about the other's relative autonomy.

20. A method for analyzing the broader institutional/agency matrix present at any attempt at coordination could be useful. The objective is to develop an analytical, value-neutral understanding of the latitudes and constraints of colleagues in other agencies (including the host government) - i.e., how the culture and operating style of an organization can influence the way it and its staff are likely to work in specific situations. In somewhat simplified terms—using the Weberian concept of ideal types<sup>13</sup>—it is useful to think of two modes of organization: the (rather more than less) **professional** mode and the (rather more than less) **bureaucratic** mode. From an operational perspective, the organizational dimensions pertinent to this analysis are: **reward structure, recruitment patterns, and decision-making processes**—concepts commonly used to characterize and compare large-scale organizations. Table 2 below presents an overview of how the two modes of organization tend to vary on these dimensions.

21. Given that individuals tend to understand what it takes to succeed in their respective institutions, one can assume that before they concentrate on inter-institutional coordination, they will make sure that they "get it right" within their own institutions. This has an impact on any potential for effective coordination between agencies. A useful working hypothesis is that country level, operational coordination depends on the degree of autonomy of operational staff and/or their capacity for rapid communications with headquarters, and their capacity to provide rapid, action-oriented responses. An operational correlate of autonomy is relative autonomy from a *priori*, hierarchical control.

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This means that no agency is one-hundred per cent in any given category. Rather, the objective is to indicate probable behavior patterns on the basis of tendencies in modes of organization.

22. If coordination means capacity for agreement, then we need to examine the basis for agreement. "Agreement" could include the capacity to agree and/or to disagree and/or to work together on given activities. Operationally, this could mean agreement on: terms of reference; an agenda for analysis; methodological approaches for a piece of sector work; the policy/investment implications of analytical results; a needed investment and how to implement it; policy orientations; action plans; etc. What does it take to agree?

23. To the question "Who is most likely to have greater latitude for initiating coordination?", the answer might be "staff from professionally organized agencies". Why? Because they have adequate field autonomy, and their headquarters is predisposed to support their initiatives. By the same token, the limits on effective operational coordination between (individuals of) institutions of the professional and the bureaucratic modes needs to be addressed. Therefore, it is useful to explore how coordination between staff of the two types of institutions can be promoted. Using the above analysis, it would be useful to examine mechanisms and incentives designed to encourage such coordination.

**TABLE 2: INSTITUTIONAL "BEHAVIOR" & MODE OF ORGANIZATION**

ORGANIZATIONAL TYPE	DIMENSIONS OF INSTITUTIONAL BEHAVIOR		
	Reward Structure	Recruitment	Decision-making processes
Professional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Based on production-oriented criteria that can be defined in specific (to the organization) and/or diffuse (referring to the profession) terms</li> <li>+ Relatively objective and open</li> <li>+ Procedures include evaluation by peer review</li> <li>+ Recognition by larger professional community (extra-institutional) taken into account</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Tends to be open &amp; use criteria applicable to larger professional community (e.g., research; publications; field accomplishments)</li> <li>+ Peer review &amp; evaluation of candidates</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Tends to favor staff autonomy with accountability</li> <li>+ Relatively few layers of decision-making</li> <li>+ Relatively swift?</li> </ul>
Bureaucratic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Tends to be automatic &amp; linked to well established career ladder generalized beyond the organization (e.g., civil service)</li> <li>+ Greater probability that political/clannish influences will be exercised</li> <li>+ Procedures favor evaluation by hierarchy</li> <li>+ Rewards based on in-house criteria</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Tends to favor in-house criteria (e.g., administrative mastery)</li> <li>+ Hierarchical review &amp; evaluation of candidates</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>+ Tend to favor <i>a priori</i> controls that limit staff autonomy</li> <li>+ Layered &amp; diffuse</li> <li>+ More lengthy?</li> </ul>

## **Procedures and internally imposed constraints**

24. Every organization has them, all staff must abide by them. Procedures and constraints are present in every institution.

- (a) The World Bank has its "project cycle" from identification to preparation to appraisal and negotiations. It also has its "financial instruments": specific and sector investment loans/credits and adjustment loans/credits. The former determines the pace of project development and the latter the form of a given project. Decisions related to these two factors are made within the institution.
- (b) Operational decisions of the Coopération française are linked to their Commissions mixtes that meet annually. There has been an historical tendency to favor technical assistance to sectors plus general budgetary assistance (to treasury) that is not specifically linked to sectoral objectives (although examples of Mali and Guinea suggest modifications in this approach).
- (c) UNDP has a threshold for local authorization and project approval, as well as extensive flexibility for project modifications. UNDP tends to link its support to its mandated "program approach" and Round Tables.
- (d) Agencies have different fiscal years that influence their decision-making processes and introduce varying forms of pressures on staff at different times of the year.
- (e) Allowable financing varies. Most agencies are limited to so-called investment financing whose operational definitions can differ. Financial support for so-called recurrent expenditures is generally off-limits.
- (f) Administrative procedures vary. Procedures concerning disbursements, procurement of goods and services, travel, etc. put unequal constraints on staff of different agencies. The nature and timing of deadlines can also vary.
- (g) For internal purposes, some agencies need to be able to demonstrate leadership within the donor community.

## Identifying comparative advantages

25. For country-level coordination, it would be useful to identify each agency's comparative advantages in both substantive and administrative terms. Effective, multi-donor support for an education development program is a complex matter that includes combinations of financial support, technical assistance in a variety of areas (planning, management, pedagogy, facilities, etc), procurement of goods and services, construction, and in-country and overseas training all in a viable policy climate. For example:

- (a) Since technical assistance from bilateral agencies generally requires using nationals from that agency's country, effectiveness will be linked to the quality of technical personnel an agency can identify for a given client country situation. Some agencies have access to larger pools of candidates than others (e.g., the Coopération française tends to use fonctionnaires; USAID can contract freely).
- (b) For a host of factors (language, administrative culture, specifics of educational systems) a given bilateral may have a comparative advantage in substantive areas. Looking for suppliers of expertise in pedagogy and planning for a Francophone system, one would be more likely to find the former in Francophone donor countries and the latter almost anywhere (assuming linguistic competence).
- (c) Fielding short-term expertise is administratively easier for some agencies, whereas others tend to favor long-term, resident expertise.
- (d) For some agencies, resources are fungible between categories (procurement of goods and services; technical assistance), whereas other agencies are more restricted.
- (e) Some countries prefer to avoid using reimbursable funds (loans and credits) to finance "soft" inputs (technical assistance, fellowships and the like), reserving such financing for construction and equipment and paying for software with grant funds.
- (f) The weight and complexity of administrative procedures vary between agencies. This can have an impact on time it takes to mobilize committed resources (financial and human).
- (g) Some multi-lateral agencies manage funds-in-trust entrusted to them by individual donor countries. The World Bank mobilizes extensive co-financing resources and UNESCO has funds-in-trust for specific activities.

Other examples could be found. It is important to identify how agencies' respective comparative advantages come into play in a given country situation, and then promote mechanisms for country-specific coordination.

26. In practical, concrete terms, and for a given country and operational situation, it could be useful for donors and government alike to fill in a table that identifies the different areas where donors may have comparative advantages. Table 3 represents such an exercise; it is blank and the cells would be filled in with the appropriate, agency-specific information. The objective of the exercise would be to address the issue of which donor is likely to accomplish a given task, or set of tasks, most effectively and efficiently given the variety of factors related to the daily work of getting the job done. This would help in determining the operational specifics of donor coordination required for a given situation.

**TABLE 3: Identifying Comparative Advantages**

RELEVANT ZONES OR CATEGORIES	DONORS			
	'A'	'B'	'C'	'D'
Technical assistance: long vs. short term; fields of special expertise, modes of recruitment,...				
Preferred expenditure categories (technical assistance, fellowships, budget assistance, goods & services, etc)				
Type of funds (borrowed vs. grant) and host country preferences concerning their use				
Rapidity of execution; flexibility				
Capable of financing only investments, recurrent, both (and how defined)?				
Funds-in-trust?				
Co-financing?				

## Conclusion : New Approaches on the Horizon

27. ADEA is demonstrating that, although difficult and characterized by evolutionary movement towards a goal that resembles a moving target, the development of collaborative partnerships can be highly rewarding. It can even be contagious, as evidenced by movements towards an ADEA-like structure for Latin America.<sup>14</sup> Such success is most likely related to the emphasis placed on the

<sup>14</sup>

See McMeekin, Robert. *Coordination of external assistance to education in Latin America and the Caribbean*. Santiago, Chile, UNESCO/UNICEF, 1996. ADEA is presented as "the outstanding example of region-wide coordination of external aid to education." The study was presented to a meeting (Washington, DC, January 16-17, 1996) of organizations providing external aid to education in Latin America and the Caribbean. Its recommendations propose establishment of structures similar to that of ADEA for Latin America and the Caribbean.

importance of process in an environment that is producing results at varying levels. ADEA is not a traditional investment project and, therefore, cannot be assessed in terms of the usual measurable outputs. Nonetheless, ADEA's program is linked to investment projects of its member agencies. ADEA Working Groups are involved in upstream work in some certain countries through the production of various forms of sector work and costed action plans that, when completed, will be considered by funding agencies in their regular country assistance programs. The forums that ADEA provides are greatly appreciated by its members, in that they allow ministers and agencies to discuss and evaluate their programs in a relaxed, neutral and non-negotiating manner.

28. Clearly, the most effective form of coordination is at the country-level, under the leadership of the ministry of education. This is the operational basis for the United Nations System-wide Special Initiative for Africa, and for implementation of the World Bank's objective of country ownership of projects. Nonetheless, the raw material of coordination is a critical mass of agreement and understanding on the issues facing the development of education and modus operandi for tackling them. This is where ADEA has demonstrated its worth—it has promoted this critical mass of agreement and understanding between the donors themselves, and between them and ministers of education in an informal context (i.e., without formal institutional structures that have their own agenda) that is owned by all concerned.

## Abbreviations

<b>ADEA</b>	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
<b>IIEP</b>	International Institute for Educational Planning
<b>IDRC</b>	International Development Research Centre
<b>RRAG</b>	Research Review and Advisory Group
<b>NORRAG</b>	Northern Policy, Review, Research, and Advisory Network on Education
<b>USAID</b>	United States Agency for International Development
<b>UNDP</b>	United Nations Development Programme
<b>HRD</b>	Human Resource Development
<b>IWGE</b>	International Working Group on Education

## Basic Education : Sector Wide and School Focused

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**'When we make laws which compel our children to go to school we assume collectively an awesome responsibility' (Childrens' Minds; Margaret Donaldson)**

### 1. ODA policy on Basic Education

The overall purpose and aims of ODA are given in Box 1, articulated as recently as 1995. The most obvious aim relating to education is the second, with a strong emphasis on the education of women/girls, but there are educational dimensions in the three other aims as well. Throughout, there is implicit acknowledgement that investment in essential social services relates very strongly to improvement in the quality of life for people in poorer countries, with related economic outcomes.

#### **Box 1**

#### **ODA'S MISSION STATEMENT**

ODA's purpose is to improve the quality of life of people in poorer countries by contributing to sustainable development and reducing poverty and suffering.

To this end ODA will aim:

- to encourage sound development policies; efficient markets and good government;
- to help people achieve better education and health and to widen opportunities particularly to women;

\*ODA has changed its name as DFID (Department for International Development) in 1997.

- to enhance productive capacity and to conserve the environment; and
- to promote international policies for sustainable development and enhance the effectiveness of multilateral development institutions.

In the context of Sub-Saharan Africa, ODA's commitment to the development of education has been recognisably related to the history of late colonial and early independence priorities, shown in significant support for academic secondary schooling, post-secondary technical education, university education and English language teaching. It is really very recently that there were, for example, several hundred British teachers in Zambian secondary schools; now there are almost none, at least in part because local production of a graduate teaching force has made their presence redundant.

During the 1980's and into the 1990's, the new climate introduced by structural adjustment programmes, supported as a policy by ODA in many Sub-Saharan African countries, has produced an environment where the short and medium term capacity of a number of countries to invest resources in the social sectors has been significantly reduced. Put simply, it has called sharply into question the ability of countries to pay a living wage to the, inevitably, large teaching force required to service the push for basic education for all. Even in the context of countries agreed to be behaving with sufficient macro-economic rectitude to be deemed to be 'on track', and thus able to access more funding for sector-wide policies and programmes, through bilateral donors, EU and WB, meeting the wage bill for teachers remains an unresolved problem.

But the most significant shift in ODA policy for education has occurred in the 1990's, in the aftermath of the Jomtien EFA conference. The current policy is articulated in Box 2 below.

**Box 2**

**ODA's EDUCATION POLICY**

1. ODA will continue to assist developing countries in tackling the problems of inequality of access and low quality of educational provision, seeing education as a means of helping to achieve ODA's global objectives.
2. In accordance with the increased global realisation of the importance yet relative neglect

of basic education, ODA will increase its emphasis on the provision of basic education, including literacy and non-formal education.

3. ODA will also lay emphasis on overcoming gender and other disparities.

4. In view of the need for a sectoral approach to these problems, ODA will lay increased emphasis on educational management and planning, in concert with other donors.

5. These global emphases will not involve a total neglect of other levels and areas of education where needs and conditions warrant. ODA's approach will be interpreted as country-specific strategies taking into account the key sectoral needs and constraints in the country concerned, the activities of other donors and the UK comparative advantage.

6. Support for basic education will include formal education up to the normal limit of compulsory/universal education, non-formal education and adult literacy training. The prime emphasis will be on reading skills and general numeracy, with secondary emphasis on other language skills in the medium of instruction, technical skills development as a component of functional literacy, science, English Language and pre-vocational education.

7. Selective ODA support for tertiary level education (including Technical/Vocational Education) will continue to be regarded as important where it is clearly targeted on improving efficiency, content and access, and where there is a clear labour market demand for its graduates.

Its openness to a significant shift towards support for basic education (largely defined as primary schooling plus adult non-formal education) is perhaps masked to some extent by cautious words which keep open doors for more traditional aid activities. Nonetheless, there has been, world-wide, a spectacular shift in ODA education programmes towards basic education, with an investment of £94 million in and around the 1996/7 financial year alone. As we shall see later, these investments have generally been on a much larger scale in any single country than traditional ODA education projects, often by a factor of ten.

Why, then, has ODA, along with other donors, followed the EFA (Education For All) slogan, having previously largely ignored earlier calls for support for UPE (Universal Primary Education) initiatives? Perhaps three reasons should be mentioned here:

- A proper modesty, almost uncertainty, about engaging with an element of the world of schooling which can reasonably be argued to be necessarily rooted in the local environment, culture and language. I know that JICA itself has taken this argument very seriously in its policy debates. It is worth noting, in parentheses, that most studies of, for example, primary school curricula, show considerable global homogeneity rather than variety (World Bank, 1990). Perhaps our sensitivities about engaging with primary schooling policies and practices should be allayed by reflecting on the apparent universality of interpretations of the primary schoolroom.
- It does appear that a more robust understanding of the scope of basic education has emerged in the post-Jomtien era, one that has been tidily summarised by Torres (1993) in the table presented in Box 3 below. It can be seen as embracing much fuller descriptions of what are the necessary conditions for functional basic education, with clear articulations of the roles of the different stakeholders.

**Box 3**

**Basic Education**

**Limited Vision**

- BE is for children
- BE takes place in the school
- BE refers to primary school education or its equivalent
- The learning of a specific amount of material or subjects is the guarantee for BE
- The only kind of knowledge transmitted in the school system through a systematic education programme
- BE is confined to a specific phase of life
- BE is homogeneous and identical for everyone
- BE is static and does not tend to change
- BE is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education
- BE is a government responsibility

**Expanded Vision (Jomtien)**

- BE is for children, youth and adults
- BE takes place in and out of school
- BE cannot be measured by numbers of certificates, but rather by learning achievement
- The ability to meet basic learning needs is the guarantee for BE
- BE recognises the validity of traditional knowledge
- BE is a lifelong process that begins at birth
- BE is differentiated (because every group and culture has its own distinct basic learning needs)
- BE is dynamic and subject to change
- BE involves every ministry and every government authority responsible for educational activities
- BE is the responsibility of government as well as of society as a whole, and educational activities therefore require consensus and coordination

Source: Torres 1993

- Above all, the most persuasive arguments are those emanating from the many correlational studies, of variable quality and contemporaneity, which have established relationships between investment in primary schooling and improved indicators in, among others, maternal and child health, family nutrition, and agricultural production. The overall impact of these studies has been very great, but our understandings of how and why these changes occur are less strong. King (1989), for example, has written that '...paradoxically the curriculum effect has not been shown to be significant'. Put in another way, it is striking that the persuasive correlational graphs simply show a horizontal axis of number of years of schooling/education, with no refinement of a quality or relevance component. Much more work is clearly needed into what we might term 'in school' or 'in classroom' factors, and should be a priority for research investment now. This fundamental research could properly be funded by bilateral development agencies.

## **2. Trends in Approaches to ODA Support**

In the context of the prioritisation of support for basic education described in the previous section, other significant changes have been taking place, more or less synchronously, in the ways in which ODA aid to education has been presented. ODA's mission statement stresses the necessity for sustainable development. Reflection on the former extensive use of long-term, resident, UK-funded technical assistance - in relation to both cost and effective sustainability - has resulted in a sharp decline in the number of ODA-recruited personnel working in Sub-Saharan Africa on lengthy (two or three year) contracts. This trend has probably be accentuated by the shift to work in basic education, as the UK has no available cadre of experts with lengthy experience in this field in Sub-Saharan Africa. One response has been the growth of short-term UK consultancy, a world-wide phenomenon in most fields. For example, in support of the huge Indian District Primary Education Programme, significant numbers of the very best UK primary educators have contributed their skills to what they have seen as an intrinsically interesting and challenging programme in its own right. Given appropriate induction and support from Indian colleagues they have generally been able to participate in a very effective way and the relationship has continued over a number of years.

Simultaneously, there has been a considerable drop in the number of educators from Sub-Saharan Africa undertaking general degree level education courses in the UK. Training has been 'projectised' and, except for specialised purposes, is more frequently carried out in the country context at much lower costs (with consequently much greater coverage), with much greater immediate contextual relevance, and with much greater likelihood of the trainee remaining in their post to apply what they have learned.

Other lessons, derived from two decades of experience with devising and delivering education 'projects', indicate the need to look more holistically at change in education systems. A simplistic example will offer illustration of the point - it is really of little worth to develop a project which aims to improve the quality of teaching and learning in teacher training colleges in an environment where the relevant unit of the ministry of education has neither reliable data nor policy in relation to teacher recruitment and retention for specific posts in individual schools. Or to develop a strongly school-based model of teacher training without ensuring that quality support can be provided, in school, within the job descriptions of the mentor teachers.

Therefore there is an on-going shift towards participation in sector, or sub-sector programmes which address the whole reform agenda

from

- Reform of planning, budgeting, staffing and monitoring/inspection procedures in ministries of education

to

- Engagement in planning for the decentralising of many educational functions to district (or equivalent) level, to take account of our understandings of the importance of including local stakeholders in all aspects of decision-making in relation to the provision of quality basic education (see for example Box 4 below)

and

- Recognition that the real locus of change in quality of learning has to be the individual classroom, with its complex interactions between teacher and learner.

#### **Box 4**

It seems clear to most of the education community that effective reform requires agendas and initiatives with strong local roots and the broad participation of those with a stake in outcomes, including not only officials but also students, parents, teachers and communities. Unless the beneficiaries of the reform become its bearers, it is likely to be stillborn.

We will return in the following sections of the paper to the formidable challenge which all of this poses for all participants in the development partnership.

### **3. Some Important Practical and Procedural Questions**

#### **Understandings about Educational Change**

There is now an extensive empirical literature in what can be broadly described as 'school improvement', with important studies being carried out in third world countries and used to justify priorities in investment in basic education. Lockheed and Verspoor (1991), in work carried out on behalf of the World Bank, identify five areas which frame most of the possible options: they are - improving the curriculum, increasing learning materials, increasing instructional time, improving teaching, increasing the learning capacity of the students. Within these categories they identify good options and blind alleys, arguing that the most dramatic gains can be made by investment in non-salary inputs, particularly educational materials (textbooks, writing materials and related supplies). But they have to recognise that the struggle to provide these materials nearly always takes place in the context of an education budget overwhelmingly dominated by the wage bill, so that they have to say 'The tantalising question is the financial feasibility of providing all children with these or equivalent inputs'.

An area of understanding which appears to have had little impact on educators working in basic education in Sub-Saharan Africa is that of the processes of educational change, most closely associated with the work of Michael Fullan and most accessibly discussed in his book *The New Meaning of Educational Change* (1991). Two particular areas stand out. Firstly, his understandings about the time frame for meaningful change, which is always much greater than the duration of traditional educational aid projects. To some extent this is being embedded in the larger sectoral programmes being supported in the field of basic education, where time frames of up to ten years are being built into programmes. Secondly, his insights into the ways in which teachers can be encouraged to change their practice and develop their professional instructional skills should cause more than a little anxiety when we scrutinise the models of in-service training or continuing professional development being built into many basic education programmes. Essentially, exposing teachers to new practices in workshops and seminars makes little difference to the quality of their teaching unless they are supported in their new-found understandings in their own classroom environment, over a lengthy period. Berends (1992) study of the reform of educational institutions, reproduced in Box 5, albeit in the context of US schools, should give us all pause for thought.

**Box 5**

**Conclusions from study of reform of educational institutions**

- Highly visible reform projects, notwithstanding, the evidence of substantial change up-close is slim. Indeed, being in the limelight of change may bear no resemblance to substantial enduring reform. Put another way, projects with less fanfare may be doing more.
- The core culture of teaching and learning is extremely difficult to change, partly because the problems are intractable, and partly because most change strategies fail to focus on teaching and learning.
- Change in teaching for more effective learning requires major transformation in the culture of the educational institution, and in its relationship to other agencies - an incredibly complex undertaking.
- Unanticipated changes in the course of any plan or project are guaranteed. They are not abnormal intrusions but part and parcel of the dynamic complexity of change.

Berends (1992)

**Managing New Approaches to Educational Aid**

The accompanying concise description of a new programme of support for primary education in Malawi, Box 6, illustrates the new ambitions, common to the country governments and most donors, for an end to one-off, free-standing projects, their replacement by coordinated programmes and the longer-term search for sector investment programmes (SIPs). At the heart of the argument for this new way of working is that constant debate within the world of aid, about ownership and partnership. This could be expressed as a series of questions which could be used as a checklist to try to judge whether or not the programme will be successful or not. The list which follows is not exhaustive, but certainly contains some of the key questions:

- Is there strong government leadership of the basic education sub-sector, specifically from

## **Box 6**

### **Basic Education in Malawi**

#### **Context**

- One of world's poorest countries; well over 50% in absolute poverty
- Population growth rate 3.1%
- Education a neglected sector - under the Banda government some of the poorest education indicators in southern Africa
- Revolution in 1994 (new Muluzi government) with introduction of Free Primary Education
- Great pressure to increase access to all levels of education and to improve quality (to do both of these quickly, therefore putting the system under great strain)

#### **Process of Programme Development**

- Close involvement in sector policy development
- Organisation of regional level as well as national level dialogue
- Long lead-time for design
- Joint development of project frameworks with Malawians
- Close cooperation with World Bank and GTZ in design of national Teacher Development Programme
- Recognition that long-term commitment necessary

#### **ODA Programme**

- Primary education programme of £27 million over 5-7 years
- Areas of focus - Quality Improvement:
  - Community management of schools
  - School-based/focused professional development of teachers
  - Enhancing availability of reading material in primary school

### Issues

- Over-concentration of donors in basic education when urgent needs in all parts of the education sector
- Management of change in overstretched ministry of education
- Maintaining good donor coordination when number of donors increases
- Achieving genuine process of coordination/cooperation in pursuit of a sector investment programme (SIP)

[S Packer, ODA Senior Education Adviser, Central Africa]

the ministry of education, but also from other key ministries such as finance and local government?

- Is there robust government management/control over the donor and lending agency processes? Are the systems used by different donors, for example in relation to, for example, programme preparation, disbursement of funds, accounting and monitoring/evaluation, being brought into a common framework?

### Box 7

#### Basic Education in Malawi

##### Context

"When addressing the development of Basic Education, often the challenge is at a national level, involving a great many stakeholders, and with a great reliance on government, through Ministries of Education, for the success or otherwise of the sub-sector. It is not possible to get significant impact and sustainable change without strong government leadership, including firm commitments to strengthened budgeting and financing. It is also essential to get all donors to come together under a strongly led government programme."

M Elliott, ODA Senior Education Adviser, East Africa

- Are the terms of this new relationship between governments and donors clearly expressed? Do they use appropriate language?

## **Quality, Access, Equity Issues**

It is entirely reasonable that we should be preoccupied with the needs of those children who never find a seat in primary school. Many efforts are focused on those approaches which make it easier for children to travel to a school within reasonable walking distance, to travel safely to school, to be present in school in reasonable health, to not be forced to make fee contributions which their parents can not meet, to be equipped with the necessary basic educational equipment whatever their financial circumstances, etc. But just as high a priority is the need to provide a school environment of such quality that children do learn the generally agreed cluster of skills and attitudes which will make a difference to their future opportunities.

In the previous section we wrote about the large-scale changes which are pre-requisites for systemic change. These in themselves are not sufficient to guarantee quality change at the school level. We now understand that attention to certain parameters will make a contribution to quality; these include:

- Local level (community) engagement in as many aspects of school life as possible;
- Regular and sympathetic advice/inspection provided from district level;
- Strong leadership from headteacher;
- Regular opportunities for teachers to communicate with other skilled teachers, and to receive realistic support in their classroom practice;
- provision of control over school budgets, however small, to headteachers and their staff.

In many rural African primary schools, it is extremely difficult for a teacher to sustain commitment and enthusiasm unless they are supported in some of the above modes. Of course not being paid what is seen to be a living wage is a major factor in relation to professional commitment, or lack of it, but it is almost as significant for teachers to feel that their work is important and is recognised as such by their communities.

## 4. Two Cases from West Africa

### (a) Good practice from Necessity: Community Education Programme in Nigeria

The macro-political climate of Nigeria in the second half of the 1990's may appear to be extremely unfavourably placed for any innovative work in basic education. In its work, the ODA is committed to working only with the local, or district, level of government, which thus provides boundaries for the scale of operation of any programme. Additionally, the very large primary school sector suffers from chronic under funding, with very little incentive for teachers to perform in other than a minimalist mode.

These pre-conditions actually allowed us to describe a set of boundary conditions within which we would work to develop a potentially useful programme. These included:

- Work intensively in a small number of locations;
- Focus on enhancement of quality of both primary schooling and adult education;
- Use participatory approaches in programme planning;
- Use an action research approach throughout the life of the programme, testing key hypotheses relating to describing minimum inputs and responses for sustaining quality education; and
- Using Nigerian resources, both human and material, wherever possible.

It is important to note that this programme has been designed to work within the framework of the government-provided primary education system. It is not, as is occurring in a number of African locations, creating what is coming to be called 'non-formal primary schooling', often with the engagement of indigenous or international NGO's. These are important, frequently creative, initiatives which allow quite radical formulations of what is meant by primary schooling. But the programme described here still works within the educational-political belief that national government should be able to commit sufficient of the national resources so as to ensure a certain quality and quantity of primary education for all its citizens. We recognise, on the one hand, that this is a fragile belief in many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, but also are reminded of the responsibility articulated in the quotation at the beginning of this paper.

Box 8 shows the complex and lengthy process of design undertaken over several years, for a

programme of total value £2.1 million only. The detailed preparation has taken place in only four communities within each of the local government areas (LGA), so even after the start-up of the programme, a great deal of similar preparative work will be undertaken as other communities are brought on stream. The cost of preparation was high, approximately 10% of the total programme budget. I would argue however that the process of educational change actually began in the

## **Box 8**

### **Nigeria: Community Education Programme Sequence of Development:**

#### **Context**

1993 - Joint ODA/Federal Government of Nigeria mission - support for basic education - move away from secondary/tertiary commitments.

1994 - (March) - Further joint mission agrees focus on poverty focused, community-based assistance to primary, adult literacy and nomads.

1995 - (April) - First participatory rural appraisal mission (PRA) to four communities. Four reports produced.

1995 (September) - In-country workshop, with ODA advisers, to review findings.

1995 (October) - Feedback and validation in communities.

1995 (November) - Project design workshop in Kaduna - 90 participants including consultants, ODA advisers, community members, other stakeholders.

[Increased political difficulties in working in Nigeria at all]

1995 (end November) - Draft project proposals to ODA

1995 (21 December) - project proposals to ODA West Africa Division for appraisal (Bid for £ 2.14 million)

1996 (April) - ODA approval for expenditure

1996 (April-November) - Complex negotiations prior to Nigerian agreement to programme

1996 (June) - Communities revisited

1997 (January/February) - recruitment of project managers and training for them

1997 (April) - project start-up workshops

1997/8 - Year One of Project - exploratory, problem solving

1998/2000 - Years Two and Three of Project

communities when the participatory preparation process began.

What we now have is a community-based programme, where action plans are devised at local level, submitted to a project management committee for approval, and implemented with the guidance of a locally-recruited project manager. Funds are to be released on a quarterly basis against these action plans by the Lagos-based programme manager, the only staff member not recruited locally, with careful accounting procedures. The range of allowable expenditures will be subject to only two significant criteria - that they are 'affordable' within a realistically supported recurrent expenditure framework, and that they can be shown to be likely to contribute to quality enhancement in primary schooling or adult education. We expect imaginative solutions to problems to emerge.

#### **(b) Ghana: Basic Education Sector Improvement Programme (BESIP)**

For two decades following independence, Ghana was noted as a country with an education system which produced high quality outputs, albeit for a minority of young people. There followed a decade of economic crisis when standards in schools plummeted and many members of the teaching force either left to pursue other economic activity, or went to teach in neighbouring West African countries. From 1987, the government of Ghana attempted to institute important structural and other changes in the education system, focusing particularly on those traditional planks of reform - re-shaping of the school structure to a 6-3-4 system, developing new curricula and textbooks, building new schools. All necessary inputs certainly, but by 1995, the reform was widely perceived to have failed, both in relation to standards achieved (very large numbers of students were leaving primary school unable to read and write) and in relation to enrolment (in rural areas many children, particularly girls, remained out of school, and drop-out rates from primary school were high in most areas).

From 1995, the government of Ghana resolved to make a second attempt at significant reform, the legal instrument being the creation of legislation for a programme leading by 2005 to Free, Compulsory, Universal, Basic Education for all Ghanaian children - the so-called FCUBE programme which has received endorsement at the highest level in Ghana. The programme has also come to be identified by the alternative acronym, BESIP, as per the title of this section. Prior to the official launch of FCUBE/BESIP in mid-1996, both government and donors collaborated in preparatory studies across all aspects of the sector, led by the World Bank. Most bilateral donors, along with the WB and EU, have become involved. Are we seeing then, the evolution of a sector investment programme, or SIP? The most honest answer would probably be "no, at least not yet". The government of Ghana, through the ministry of education, has taken steps to provide a strong structure within which donors should work, by the development of detailed policy documents and

operational plans which it is intended should be used to identify the specific contributions by donors. There are also, regular donor coordination meetings, chaired by government, and six-monthly consultative panel meetings which, with all the donors, review the whole FCUBE/BESIP programme. This process, it was hoped, would reduce the number of donor teams knocking at the office doors of the ministry of education and distracting key personnel from their tasks of running an education system! This remains aspiration rather than reality. The donors, for their part, have their own operating systems, their own time frames, and to a greater or lesser extent, their own agendas. And it is probably fair to say that, in early 1997, the government of Ghana is not sufficiently internally robust to be able to exert discipline on the donors.

ODA has pledged to provide a sum of up to £15 million in the first five year phase of FCUBE/BESIP, which would be one of our largest contributions to educational development in West Africa. ODA has consistently held to the position that its contribution must be made within the agreed government of Ghana's policy and operational framework, in recognition that the crucial factor in the long-term development of Ghanaian education is the requirement for a strong ministry of education leadership, both at central and local level, in support of the teaching force in the schools. At the same time, ODA has agreed that its 1997 contribution to the programme shall largely focus on the resolution of crucial policy and capacity questions, and on support for a variety of pilot activities designed to test out elements of the work, particularly in the areas of new approaches to both pre-service and in-service teacher education.

What we should perhaps reflect upon are those earlier insights about the time scale for meaningful educational change, and note that the FCUBE/BESIP process has been designed to a ten-year time frame. At this point, it is probably best classed as a very large donor-led series of loosely integrated projects, taking responsibility for providing financing of a major part of the non-salary items of the education budget for the first nine years of schooling, whilst the ministry of education carries the on-going burden of the teachers' salary bill. It certainly aspires to be a strongly coordinated programme of reform of basic education, with clear leadership by the ministry of education, and appropriate donor responses. The evolution to a sector investment programme, with donors contributing direct tranches of finance against agreed performance indicators by the sector, remains a legitimate medium-term goal; the very act of identifying this as a future way of working may itself provide important motivation.

## **5. Concluding Remarks**

I have used this paper to explore with you, the ways in which I perceive ODA's approach to working for the development of basic education to be evolving. We recognise how exploratory

much of this work has to be, as we seek to understand the nature of the essential systemic foundations and pedagogic practices which will be required to provide quality schooling for all our children. We recognise the challenge of working in new ways as partners with ministries of education. We recognise the importance and responsibility of the task.

On behalf of ODA, I would wish to thank JICA for organising this important seminar, and for its invitation to us to be present and to contribute.

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# **International Seminar on Basic Education and Development Assistance in Sub-Saharan Africa**

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## **1. Importance of cooperation for basic education in Africa**

Japanese cooperation to Africa can be understood with reference to three key words: (1) The Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD); (2) Japan's Initiatives on Assistance to Africa; and (3) the New Development Strategy.

The Tokyo International Conference on African Development (TICAD) was hosted by Japan in 1993. At TICAD, it was agreed that self-help efforts and good governance in African countries were important, and that the establishment of a new partnership in the international community was essential in promoting development.

Thereafter, a follow-up meeting was held with a view to applying the Asian experience to the African development process. Since TICAD, Japan has actively extended assistance with priority on: (1) support for democratization; (2) support for economic reforms; (3) support for human resources development; (4) support for the environment; and (5) effective, efficient support through policy dialogue and other mechanisms.

At the ninth general assembly of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD9) in April 1996, Yukihiro Ikeda, Japanese Minister for Foreign Affairs, announced Japan's Initiatives on Assistance to Africa. The Plan for Human Resources Development in Africa forms a major pillar of these initiatives.

### **Plan for Human Resources Development in Africa**

To promote human resources development in Africa, Japan will support the campaign to

ensure primary education for all children in Africa by the year 2015. This support includes the following three components:

- (1) One hundred million dollars in educational support for Africa over three years starting in FY1996.
- (2) Technical training for some 3,000 Africans over the same three year period.
- (3) Utilization of 2 million dollars from the contributions made by Japan to the UNDP Human Resources Development Fund, in order to promote South-South cooperation, including Asia-Africa cooperation.

In addition, the initiatives call for Japan to host the second TICAD meeting in Tokyo in 1998.

In promoting cooperation in Africa, it is important to bear in mind the New Development Strategy adopted at the Thirty-fourth High Level Meeting of the Development Assistance Committee (DAC) of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), held on 6-7 May 1996. This New Development Strategy, entitled *Shaping the 21st Century: The Contribution of Development Cooperation.*, is based on the concept of a "global partnership." Under such a concept, developing countries should progressively assume ownership while industrialized countries, as their partners, should back their efforts to assume greater responsibility for their own development. Toward this end, it is important to set measurable, realizable goals and to take an achievement-oriented approach. In the area of education, the New Development Strategy calls for universal primary education in all countries by 2015 and the elimination of gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005.

## **2. Basic policy on educational cooperation**

There is a discussion within JICA on what kind of policies should be adopted to promote educational cooperation. The Study on Development Assistance for Development and Education carried out by JICA in 1994 outlines three basic policies concerning educational cooperation in developing countries. They are:

First, an expansion in educational assistance. There are two types of expansion. The first comes from a shift in regional focus away from Asia toward Africa. The second comes from a widening of the scope of cooperation to include not only higher education, e.g. improving the instruction of university teachers in various areas of specialization, and vocational training for technical

personnel, but also assistance in the area of basic education.

Second, priority on assistance for basic education. The importance of this emphasis is now widely recognized throughout the world, as basic education is thought to form an important building block for national development.

Third, implementation of aid matched to the realities of educational development in each country. This could, in other words, be called country specific cooperation. Needs in this area are diverse. Some countries are in need of quantitative expansion (i.e. they need to boost school enrollment), others are in need of qualitative improvement (i.e. they need to prevent dropout and improve attendance) and some have extended basic education to a certain extent, but need to develop secondary and higher education. It is vital to understand the respective needs of these countries.

JICA is extending cooperation to the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa based on these policies. Overall, the region's needs for assistance in the area of basic education are great, but each country is at a different stage of development, and the cultural and social contexts of these countries are diverse, making it necessary to tailor our assistance to each and every country and subregion.

### **3. JICA's educational cooperation in Sub-Saharan Africa at present**

Looking at cooperation to Africa in general, donor nations and international organizations have extended large sums of aid to the region. In 1995, Japanese ODA to Africa amounted to some 140 billion yen (about 1.3 billion dollars), or about 13 percent of all its ODA.

In 1995, JICA's technical cooperation to Sub-Saharan Africa totaled some 25.5 billion yen. The portion for education amounted to about 4.4 billion yen, or 20 percent of all technical cooperation for all of Africa. This included six technical cooperation projects focusing on vocational training and higher education, the acceptance of 66 training program participants, and the assignment of 439 JOCV volunteers and 23 experts (these figures include both new and ongoing cooperation).

#### **Ongoing projects in Sub-Saharan Africa**

**Kenya:** NYS Technical Institute, Kenya Institute of Surveying and Mapping (vocational training), Jomo Kenyatta College of Agriculture and Technology (higher education), Social Forestry Training Project (non-formal)

**Zambia:** The University of Zambia Veterinary Education Project

**Tanzania:** The Kilimanjaro Agricultural Training Center Project (vocational training)

Roughly half of the technical cooperation for education to the region was in the form of JOCV volunteer activities. Of the 439 volunteers engaged in education, 281 -- or about 65 percent -- were involved in basic education, making up an important pillar of JICA's basic education cooperation. Some 162 of these volunteers were dispatched to Kenya, Zambia and other Anglophone African countries as mathematics and science teachers, thus taking advantage of Japan's leadership strength in these fields.

Sub-Saharan Africa has also received priority under Japan's capital grant aid program. The proportion of grants to this region increased from 14.5 percent in 1980 to 29.3 percent in 1995. This increase in grants has accompanied an increase in cooperation for primary education, which amounted to some 4.3 billion yen in 1995. In the area of primary and secondary education, which has centered around the building of educational facilities and improvement of equipment, 11 projects have been launched over the five-year period starting in 1995, principally in the Francophone countries of Sub-Saharan Africa.

As for joint cooperation with other donor nations and aid organizations, we can point to the following:

The Association for the Development of African Education (ADEA), meets regularly in Africa for discussions among donor and recipient nations. Japan is not yet a member of ADEA, but a JICA project formulation advisor was dispatched in January and February to gather information on the educational cooperation needs of Africa and to study the feasibility of related joint cooperation with ADEA.

We can also point to joint cooperation with British ODA in Kenya and South Africa. Under this joint cooperation, British ODA is extending assistance in the area of primary education, while JICA is cooperating for secondary education. Furthermore, the Japanese Grant Assistance for Grass Roots Projects program is being utilized to actively enhance cooperation.

With the World Bank, JICA holds annual consultations on development cooperation. In consultations this fiscal year, basic education was one of the main items on the agenda.

#### **4. Issues and efforts to address them**

There are numerous issues that JICA must resolve in the future related to its cooperation for basic education in Sub-Saharan Africa.

(1) The countries of Sub-Saharan Africa have placed priority on basic education in their development programs and are trying out various policies to make related improvements. The fiscal base in developing countries, however, is inadequate and, under recent structural adjustment initiatives, many countries are forced to make cutbacks in their education budgets. As a result, teachers' salaries drop and it becomes difficult to secure good teachers. These and other problems preclude improvement in the quality of teaching. In response, there is a need to discuss whether or not to extend fiscal support to boost teachers' salaries and/or cover recurrent costs; explore cooperation methods with limited recurrent costs; provide texts and books; propose paths toward self-reliance, including the utilization of private-sector vitality; prepare a higher education base that offers training and retraining programs for teachers; and search for methods to enhance the quality of teachers, including the strengthening of environmental education programs.

(2) It is difficult to find cooperation methods matched to the social, cultural and historical diversity of aid recipients. For example, JOCV volunteers in Sub-Saharan Africa are faced with the issue of deciding what language of instruction and educational techniques should be adopted. To resolve these issues, there is a need to select an appropriate language of instruction in order to improve learning efficiency; improve or creatively use educational materials; and, after fully grasping the current state of traditional education and considering the introduction of modern educational methods, there is a need to adopt strategies that appropriately integrate these methods. To identify diverse regional community needs and hammer out appropriate policies to promote self-reliance in education, it is important that educational administration be decentralized. In Sub-Saharan Africa, however, most regional administrative institutions are underdeveloped, so it is necessary first of all to ask whether or not decentralization is realistic under these conditions. Then consideration can be given to how extensive decentralization should be.

(3) Finally, it is essential to identify the factors that prevent a rise in enrollment and to come up with policies to deal with those factors. Economic, social and cultural factors figure prominently in the equation. As our panelists pointed out in their discussions, it is essential to fully grasp these factors.

## **5. Prospects for JICA's engagement in basic education cooperation in Sub-Saharan Africa**

We have come to realize that these issues cannot be resolved through independent, piecemeal efforts by aid implementing organizations. JICA must take a comprehensive and collaborate approach, while building its human and other resources.

### **(1) Comprehensive approach**

JICA's technical cooperation has traditionally been in the form of technology transfers to specific regions. The program approach taken by other donors, under which assistance is extended throughout the educational sector, has been logistically difficult under the Japanese system. There are exceptions, however, such as JICA's cooperation for the improvement of secondary math and science education. Under this and similar programs, JICA is not implementing each of its cooperation schemes independently; rather it is integrating these schemes with the aim of achieving a multiplier effect.

### **(2) Cooperation with other donor nations and NGOs**

Improving the results of educational assistance is not a task for any one agency. Rather, it requires cooperation with other donor agencies and nations. There is a need for JICA to expand its cooperation with British ODA and the World Bank, as mentioned earlier. It is also important to actively promote relations with ADEA in its effort to promote partnerships between African countries and aid implementing agencies.

NGOs are playing an active role in assistance related to basic education. In Asia, for example, they are deeply involved in primary education in Bangladesh and education of the poor and ethnic minorities in Thailand. In the future, we must consider the support of NGOs in educational assistance. Cooperation with NGOs could include joint implementation of projects, joint activities with JOCV volunteers, training in Japan of NGO personnel involved in educational assistance, and information exchanges. In Sub-Saharan Africa as well, the importance of promoting basic education projects in cooperation with NGOs is increasing.

### **(3) Improving the aid implementation structure**

For JICA, the difficulty of educational assistance to Sub-Saharan Africa is, first of all, that Africa is geographically very far away from Japan and unfamiliar territory as a result. Socially and culturally, Africa is very different from Japan. Furthermore, except for English-speaking countries in Africa, there is a language barrier. In addition, the capacity of the recipient countries is limited.

To extend effective cooperation in the area of basic education under such difficult circumstances, it is important that Japan, and JICA in particular, make the following improvements to its aid implementing system.

First, it is essential to recruit and train educational aid experts commensurate with Japan's

expansion of educational assistance.

Second, it is important to train JICA staff with expertise in education, as well as educational consultants.

Third, it is important to build a network with researchers and administrators involved in educational assistance, as well as universities and other concerned organizations and government authorities. At the same time, it is necessary to establish a structure for the promotion of development education to gather information on educational assistance to developing countries and to promote understanding of educational assistance.

### **DAC New Development Strategy**

The seminal paper "Shaping the 21st Century : the Contribution of Development Co-operation", adopted by the DAC in 1996 outlines the new development strategy for the coming twenty years. It provides guidance for effective assistance, beginning with measurable goals of poverty reduction, social development and environmental sustainability. Co-operation should be built around partnerships between donors and recipients that enhance self-reliance and build on local capacities.

The goals:

1. Economic well-being: The proportion of people living in extreme poverty in developing countries should be reduced by at least one-half by 2015.

2. Social development: There should be substantial progress in primary education, gender equality, basic health care and family planning, as follows:

a) There should be universal primary education in all countries by 2015.

b) Progress toward gender equality and the empowerment of women should be demonstrated by eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005.

c) The death rate for infants and children under the age of five years should be reduced in each developing country by two-thirds the 1990 level by 2015. The rate of maternal mortality should be reduced by three-fourths during this same period.

d) Access should be available through the primary health-care system to reproductive health services for all individuals of appropriate ages, including safe and reliable family planning methods, as soon as possible and no later than the year 2015.

3. Environmental sustainability and regeneration: There should be a current national strategy for sustainable development, in the process of implementation, in every country by 2005, so as to ensure that current trends in the loss of environmental resources-forests, fisheries, fresh water, climate, soils, biodiversity, stratospheric ozone, the accumulation of hazardous substances and other major indicators - are effectively reversed at both global and national levels by 2015.

## DISCUSSION II.

**Moderator:** First of all, Mr. Allsop talked about the recurrent costs and salaries of teachers — that's the major part of the recurrent costs. About the teacher salary and also the long-term assistance, would you like to make any comments on this thing?

**Ms. Diallo:** Maybe I should say something because I talked about the redeployment of teachers. We have been able to build 3000 classrooms within these three years as you have seen. And what we have noticed is that some teachers were at the secondary level, and not all of them had 18 hours a week. Some of them just had two, four hours or eight hours. Therefore, we did a big campaign. First of all, we approached the two unions. You know how strong the teachers' unions are. So we called them and we told them the problem. We have to provide these classrooms, which are built and equipped, with teachers. We know that more than 1000 teachers are at the secondary level. They don't have 18 hours a week. Should we let them stay there or should we cut the salary, or what do you prefer or let them go down in primary schools and get some in-service training to help them teach in the primary schools. What do you prefer? So we had a good discussion with them, and together we made a big sensitization among teachers and also the parents because we had to have the parents with us, otherwise if you have a strike, it will block the whole country. That's how we were able to redeploy 1,806 teachers from secondary school to primary school without paying a penny. And then, we also were allowed to hire 600 teachers, but in rural areas. And you know how young people are reluctant to go to rural areas. So what we did was to centralize completely the recruiting of teachers. So the young people who had finished teacher training in college were told that the job was actually in the rural areas. You go and you get it there. So that's how we solved one part of the teachers' salary problem.

**Moderator:** Thank you very much. Very, important key work that was done in Guinea. Fortunately I had opportunity to be with ADEA where Richard Sack is heading as a researcher for JICA to collect information on Sub-Saharan Africa. It was not only educational for myself, but also I was able to collect a lot of information otherwise not available. I am wondering whether you could elaborate a little bit about ADEA, what kind of organization, and how it has evolved in a very short time.

**Mr. Sack:** Thank you. Yes, ADEA has basically become a common ground for all concerned with the development of education in Africa. I say common ground meaning ADEA is not an organization in the usual sense of the term. It doesn't have a formal organizational structure. It's not an implementing agency. It's not a funding agency. It's a common

ground where agencies and ministers of education and professionals in education can work together in a number of different forums. The steering committee, which is composed of members of the steering committee plus seven ministers, is the primary place of coordination. Ten working groups, working in countries on specific issues of education in Africa, working in areas of capacity building, advocacy and analytical work.

You might want to ask, what are some of the results of ADEA? Let me just give a couple of examples. I can talk about the results of working groups such as FAWE, which has played an important role in sensitizing all areas of the educational community, be it ministers of education, legislatures, donors, as to the importance of girls' education in Africa, and not only the importance, but various means of attaining this paramount goal. I can talk about action plans that have been developed by some working groups in several countries for the improvement of the collection of statistics or for the improvement of teacher management systems. I can talk about, for example, the United Nations system-wide special initiative for Africa, which was developed by several U.N. agencies, mainly in New York, and which was supposed to receive the support of all agencies. But for various reasons, the very first point of consultation amongst the agencies happened to be a meeting of the steering committee of ADEA. For some reason or other the agencies concerned did not find a more effective means of consultation, a most important process.

Basically, what you find happening in ADEA is the development of shared understandings between agencies and ministries, shared understandings which have a much greater likelihood of developing into shared programs than if you did not have these shared understandings.

**Moderator:** Thanks very much. Now, Aïcha?

**Ms. Diallo:** FAWE. It's the Forum for African Women Educationalists, which is constituted of 44 members. To be a member of FAWE, you have to be either a minister of education, or a vice-chancellor of a university. And these 44 members are represented in 26 countries, so it's a pan-African organization. And it has now seventeen national chapters because the work has to be done in the field.

**Moderator:** Thank you very much. About the organization, ADEA, you have in your materials a brief explanation about the organization, and another organization, FAWE is composed of former education ministers and the top of the universities and so on. This is an NGO which promotes awareness on education, especially on women's education from policy making to the implementation of different programs. I think this is a very important and very interesting organization created in Africa.

## 4. QUESTION AND ANSWER SESSION WITH THE FLOOR



**Moderator:** Now we would like to solicit questions and also comments about the presentations made. Today's presentations covered a very wide range, including the conditions in Sub-Saharan as far as education is concerned and also different efforts made in this area.

Before we go on to the questions from the floor, I also would like to mention that we have the members who are participating in JICA's education program from South Africa.

**Audience Member:** Thank you very much for this opportunity. It's a great honor.

Just to comment on behalf of the South African participants who are here, basically, I think this seminar just coincided with our training here in educational management and training, and that we are indeed pleased to have been a part of this seminar, to have listened and perhaps some of us will share ideas, and maybe even go beyond sharing ideas hopefully.

Maybe to say one or two things about South Africa. Actually I will start by saying it's very difficult to talk about South Africa at the moment because like some of the countries mentioned, South Africa has just emerged from its own problems. Some will recall that over some decades there were political problems and so on, but I think we emerged from that about three years ago, in 1994. So the difficulty about talking about issues there is that we had a differentiated way of funding organizations and administration and management of schools. Whereas perhaps some communities within the province of South Africa have advanced quite well. Other communities which are in the majority have not yet advanced. But we have been talking about this as a group here, and we do recognize the importance of basic education, primary education particularly.

But also we have a peculiar problem which might also be common in other African countries -- the question of high illiteracy rate. On average in our country it's about 50%. To that end, we have passed legislation, and one is pleased to mention that our President, President Nelson Mandela, has taken personal interest in making sure that this illiteracy rate is eradicated. And we also looking beyond the question of reading, writing and numeracy. We are also looking at the question of giving these people or teaching them skills, what I had understood to be life-long learning, and this is what we are gearing towards.

In conclusion, there are challenges, very serious challenges. I have already spoken about the 50%, and the fact that communities in this country are not equally in need, so this is also a challenge that needs cooperation of all in the country.

We are not a very rich country, so the second challenge will actually be financial. And maybe I am just mentioning this deliberately because when we talk to some people, they say, "no, no, not South Africa, because it's rich." It's not actually the case because we also have a limitation of funds. Just to become specific, I would say, for instance, in the province that I come from, we have a very great shortage of classrooms which affects

education. Of the 60,000 classrooms that are needed at the present moment or over the next five years, 35,000 of those are needed in the province from which I come. So it's not uncommon. It's not unusual to find a classroom under a tree or the whole school under a tree, particularly in the provinces.

Another problem that is receiving attention is early childhood education, because we believe that the foundation should be a good education at a very early stage. That is also a challenge because due to financial constraints we have not yet started in earnest.

Maybe briefly that is what one would like to mention, that is, what we are presenting here is not necessarily an official opinion. Thank you very much.

**Moderator:** Thank you very much. South Africa, in comparison with other Sub-Saharan countries - we tend to have the impression that it is richer. However, you have those inequalities in education, and a high rate of non-literacy that there are not enough classrooms, and the problems of preschool education. So we see that these problems are common in South Africa.

So questions from the floor now. Those with questions, will you please raise your hand.

**Audience Member:** I am a professor at the graduate school. There were sporadic references to the role of the communities. There are three actors: one is the government, second is the community, and third is the market. The community can act both positively or sometimes negatively because of the given value system, or given society.

Now, whatever is the good educational policy, for the policy to be really effectively implemented, I think there are five major factors. One is the consistency in the policy itself. There should not be much exemptions or loopholes in the policy itself. Second, there must be a very strong political commitment. Third, the capability of the implementing agency in terms of the organization's personnel, budget, and rapport with the client. The fourth point is the community -- the receiving end. How do the people respond to the government's delivered policies? For the community to positively participate, there are three major factors. 1) the community's organizations, 2) the community's norms, and 3) community's organizations and the capacity to build its own resources. And fifthly (sic), is the policy environment.

With this framework, I should like to propose that the discussion should be much more deepened. Thank you.

**Audience Member from JICA:** Miss Kagia mentioned south-south cooperation. I have a couple of questions concerning south-south cooperation. South-south cooperation in the area of primary education -- what is the efficacy, how should that south-south cooperation be implemented, to what area, and how should it be used for it to be effective? The second

one, Japan is planning to hold TICAD II next year, and I am sure in TICAD II, we will have an issue of Asian-African cooperation, no doubt, in other words, using the Asian experience to Africa. I have some suspicions about it, or skepticism, I should say, about it, the application of the Asian experience to Africa because the education system between Asia and Africa may be too different. But still what can Asia do for Africa in terms of providing suitable experiences?

**Audience Member:** I am from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Bureau of Economic Cooperation. In the Foreign Ministry we have an educational task force and we are soliciting views and comments from the people. Well, it is good to give education aid, but how do we monitor the results, or the achievement? How do we assess the achievement or effectiveness of education aid? How can we measure that? Because running this task force, of course we say that aid is good. But still very often we talk about achievement-oriented aid. How can we assess and measure achievement in education aid? How does one judge that education aid brought good results or bad results?

**Audience Member from JICA:** I was in Kenya about ten years ago, at a university in Kenya, teaching management at a university, so I have some experience. And after that, I got involved in DAC evaluating aid. So I am very interested in education aid. With that background, I would like to ask you, concerning basic education in Africa, how is the support of the donor country's people established, or created?

We do not have much resources now. Resources for aid is constrained, and that being the case, the mission on the part of the donor is that you will be able to achieve visible, short-term, tangible results in a short period so that you can tell the people, or the people of the donor county, that these results have been achieved. But in basic education the recipients are children or women or the disadvantaged people, so in that sense, it is not very difficult to receive aid. However, when compared with higher education or vocational education and so forth, or technical education, and when you have to compete for funding with these types of education, it may not be all together easy to channel money into basic education. And also Japan has not been involved with basic education in Asia, so we tend to feel that education, particularly basic education, is an area for self-help on the part of these developing countries. We have been saying that to Asian countries and we still continue to say that. This is the understanding of basic education here in Japan. Is it the same in the United States, and in the U.K., or is it different in your country? Now, how can you achieve visible, tangible, sustainable impact in a short period with the education aid? How can we achieve that, if you can give us some ideas.

**Moderator:** Now, I would like to have responses from the panelists and then we will have another

round of questions. There was one comment about education development, and then there was another question about the south-south cooperation to Ms. Kagia, and then TICAD II; how can we use the Asian experience for Africa? And then the third question was, how can you evaluate and measure the effectiveness of education aid? And the last one is, how can you achieve visible, tangible, effective impact in a short period. Also is it appropriate to give aid to basic education? Isn't basic education something that each country can do?

Now, Ms. Kagia please, about south-south cooperation.

**Ms. Kagia:** Thank you. You asked two difficult questions, but they are really at the heart of what I seem to be picking up even in the other questions, which is, how to increase the effectiveness of Japanese support to basic education in Sub-Saharan Africa. There is no doubt in my mind that countries have a lot to learn from other countries in similar situations in other parts of the world in at least three ways. One is in the way in which they organize their educational systems in terms of the content. Asia has instructive lessons for Sub-Saharan Africa because of the way the education programs are integrated with their social and religious values as opposed to what Minister Aïcha Bah said earlier about education being divorced from the social realities, and that is something that, I think, if we are going to make education in Africa much more relevant, we could learn something from. The second lesson that Africa could learn from Asia is financing of education systems. I alluded to that earlier about how public budgets are disproportionately expended on higher levels of education at the expense of primary education. When you look at most of the countries in this part of the world, government fully funds and supports basic education, and then they join hands with the private sector and the parents to provide education for secondary and higher education. Last year, we took a team of African ministers to South Korea and what we were looking at is how did they get where they were in thirty short years. And it was very clear that the partnerships that have developed in financing of education to the point where by the time South Korea reached \$10,000 GNP per capita two years ago, the private sector was putting more into education than the government was putting into it. That was a very instructive example to those ministers of education. And then the final lesson which is also very important is the utilization of skills from education at all levels. One of the lessons that I know I have taken from here is the value of meritocracy, rewarding those who have excelled at all levels, jobs are assigned that way, promotions are given in both public and private sector. If there is a built-in value for meritocracy, it becomes self-reinforcing for excellence in education programs, and then you develop a vicious cycle where the demand for education then, is a filled by the certainty that good education will lead to good economic outcomes. I don't know whether that answers the question fully. Perhaps I had better stop there.

**Moderator:** Thanks very much. Is there anybody who wants to add?

**Mr. Allsop:** Thank you. I was very interested by the analysis offered by our professor colleague here. It seems to me that the policy analysis that you have given us applies to every country's educational environment. It's a common factor. It's as desirable in Japan as in Russia or anywhere else. What strikes me very strongly is that it doesn't actually cost a lot of money to provide that environment. It actually costs a lot of human effort and commitment. And if taking our fourth question as point, there is a constraint on funding. This is the crucial area which you described, which we should be trying to support financially in human development terms. But then I turn again to the fourth question and say, sorry, sir, you cannot have that quickly. It is not possible to do that quickly. It is not possible to describe the development of that capacity, political environment, community capacity in the kind of time frame which is normally comfortable to people who start with economics. Perhaps I should say a little more than that. But actually, most of the significant changes which I think the educationists here on this panel seek to find it in Sub-Saharan Africa are long-term and not easily measurable with indicators which people feel comfortable about. And I am sorry. We go on trying to be more specific in those indicators and those outcomes, but we have to take the long view. Thank you.

**Ms. Diallo:** There is also a question which has been asked as to whether it is possible to replicate the Asian experience in Africa. I would say yes because yesterday I visited ACCU(Asian Culture Center of UNESCO), and I have seen the material that they have been developing. This material can be adapted in Africa because the issues that have been brought in this material are the same in Africa. It's just a question of adapting it to the context.\

**Mr. Sack:** I will address the question of our friend from the Foreign Affairs Ministry as to how to monitor results, assess, and measure. This is indeed a most difficult question. But you have to think about what education is -- a very long-term enterprise. Just think about how many years you went to school and how many years it has taken any country to develop the education system it has. Results in education don't come very quickly. This said, in the context of foreign aid, there are several distinctions that need to be made. First of all, there are countries, that is, recipient countries, that are bigger and smaller. In some countries, foreign aid is but a fraction, a small fraction, of even the capital costs spent on education. And there, what you would want to look at would be what marginal differences, or what innovative effects foreign aid has had. In other countries, much smaller countries, particularly in poor countries, indeed, foreign aid will in budgetary terms make a difference. I have been involved in projects where a five-year project represents maybe 20% of the annual education budget of the country. Now, there you might expect results.

Well, what kind of results could you expect? Results related to access? And indeed there are measurable indicators in terms of enrollment rates over time, girls' enrollment rates, or rural enrollment rates over time. But even then enrollment rates are related to the general economic situation, and training more teachers or building more schools are not going to make much of a difference if the general economy is declining. And another point is, of course, the be-all-and-end-all of education, let's not forget, is learning, achievement, and there is the issue of how do we measure achievement. Well, it is measurable, by in large, but we have to have the instruments to be able to do that. And you have big international surveys such as IEA (the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement), which provides comparative indicators on achievement in math, language, science, and other subjects across a large number of countries. But the most essential thing is for countries to have their own apparatuses, their own capacities for measuring achievement. And this is for example, one area where the World Bank has become increasingly active over the years, that is, developing the in-country capacities, technical and organizational capacities, to be able to measure achievement. Now, the results of what you measure is another question all together but still you need the wherewithal to be able to do this.

So I think this is an area, education, where it might be counterproductive to expect quick results just like it's very difficult to think of coming up with a quick fix in the area of education. Nonetheless, as difficult as it is, I do suggest that the question has to be kept foremost on all of our agendas, even though we need to have a certain amount of philosophy or philosophical distance as we attempt to answer the question.

**Mr. Odano:** I would like to talk about the south-south and TICAD II questions. Tolstoy, the Russian author, has written in his book that happy families are happy families, but unhappy families are all unhappy in some way or another. Now, when we look at East Asia's success because Japan has been so successful, Asia is regarded as being a very successful region. But Sub-Saharan, on the other hand, are filled with problems carrying a number of problems. That is the sort of image that we hold. But if we think carefully, you will come to understand that if you look at Asia, there are Islamic countries, Buddhist countries, Confucianist countries, or Christian countries. So there are different countries. And also there are countries which have experienced colonial rule, and those who have not. So I think in terms of diversity, Asia is equivalent to or not that much different from Sub-Saharan Africa. So in that respect, because there is this diversity, Sub-Saharan Africa does not need to have any fear, but instead, I think, that we need to try to come closer to a solution referring to this Asian example.

When we talk about south-south assistance, I think there are four areas we need to look into. One is the fact that the world is becoming more and more interdependent,

therefore, it's necessary to have more inter-regional cooperation between the South countries, and we need to support this sort of movement. That's one point. And secondly, and this is from a donor's perspective, I believe, but because of this aid fatigue, there is a need to try at the same time to meet this increasing demand for aid. So the developing nations need to provide and fill in for the areas which the developed nations cannot provide assistance for. And the third aspect that I would like to talk to you when we try to promote south-south cooperation is the fact that appropriate technology can be transferred if it's in the south-south assistance, and I think this is true also for the primary education sector. And lastly, I would like to emphasize the fact that by carrying out international cooperation it's not just the developing nations that benefit, but industrialized nations also benefit from this process.

Now, Japan has been a recipient country for a long period of time, and Japan has been a donor country as well, and we have learned a great deal from this experience. So this is something that the Americans are saying as well. The Americans are saying that providing assistance does have a very good effect on their community as well, whether it be the women in development, or gender issue, or environmental issues. They say that this assistance has been very beneficial for the Americans as well. So we shouldn't define the developing nations as the recipients, but rather by going to those countries, you can also have an opportunity, the donors also have an opportunity, to think back and reflect upon themselves and their own communities.

We have been talking about ADEA, and I think ADEA is a very important place for us to exchange information at the policy level as well as at the grassroots level. And I think ADEA-like approaches need to be promoted in the future and the donors should not think of themselves as giving people assistance but rather they should think of themselves as partners with the recipient countries.

**Moderator:** We would now like to have another round of questions, maybe from four people.

**Audience Member:** I am from the University of Zambia and I am presently a visiting research fellow here in Tokyo. I have a few observations to make on some of the presentations. To begin with, I would like to seek one little clarification from my friend, Ms. Ruth Kagia of the World Bank, which would be the last page of her paper in that table, I find that in the column depicting the key issues, the column is left blank in the case of Zambia. And I am wondering whether it implies that there are no critical issues because there are some very critical issues in the Zambian case. One issue for example is very evident from table 2 of the UNESCO paper, where you have shown for example that the primary enrollment rates have been steadily declining from 1989-90 to 1994-95. There has been a consistent and persistent decline. And I think it is not only the case of the primary enrollment, but even in

the case of secondary enrollment in Zambia. And the second, and I think a very important issue, is about the tremendous deterioration of the quality of education at all levels, primary, secondary, and which of course feeds back into the tertiary level. As a professor of economics at the university, I realize now the kind of intake we have every year at university from the various schools. The quality has been going down tremendously.

The next observation I would like to make is with respect to the importance of primary education. It is true, in general, that perhaps on a social cost/benefit analysis, primary education might have the maximum returns, but I think the situation would vary from context to context. For example, if you take female education and the impact of female education on society in terms of performance on various social indicators like fertility rate, maternal mortality rates, child mortality rates, and nutritional status of households and so on, what we find, and I found this in the case of Zambia and a few other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, that the maximum impact is not at the primary level or the tertiary level, but at the secondary level. In other words, when you look at the progression of female education from zero level education to primary to secondary and to tertiary, you will find that there is some improvement in these social indicators when you move from zero to primary, but there is virtually a quantum leap when you go from primary to secondary. And therefore, I think it's very important that when it comes to female education we do not at any stage, suggest that we are quite pleased if we stop at ensuring universal primary female education. I think it's very important to move on to secondary female education as well.

The third point is an academic point. I chuckled to myself when the final panelist, the man there from JICA mentioned that he would like to find ways in which to improve the salaries of teachers in Sub-Saharan Africa. And I am very much in agreement with that suggestion because it seems to me that there is almost an antithetical stance that has come from the World Bank and ODA. For example, earlier on, we were shown a chart where we were shown which are the important, and which are the relatively unimportant correlates with the quality of primary education. And the policy implications are what the World Bank has been suggesting to a number of countries because what it means is that if you expand class sizes, up to at least say 40 per classroom, and you extend the number of teaching hours, you recruit teachers with lower qualifications at lower salaries, then you will be able to really economize and get the maximum output. And I think that this is not something that is valid in Sub-Saharan Africa. I remember that I read a paper by Professor Martin Cornoy (sp?) a couple of years ago, very short, that these prescriptions were made by the World Bank to some of the East Asian countries notably South Korea, which implemented them, and they found that in a few years, there was a tremendous reduction in the quality of education and therefore, they had to reverse some of these trends in terms of teachers' salaries and so on. I think the same would be valid when it comes to Sub-

Saharan Africa. Thank you.

**Audience Member from African Country:** I am from South Africa, a participant in the JICA program, educational management. While from South Africa we appreciate the assistance extended by developed countries to developing countries in form of donors, we do not have an extensive experience of working with international donors in South Africa, perhaps for some political reasons. As I indicated while we appreciate the assistance provided, we ask a lot of questions. One, for decades, international donors have been involved in helping developing countries. How long does it take to help a country to move from one economic stage to the other stage? Does it take seventy-five years, or does it take one hundred years? Take an example of a country like Botswana which is politically stable. How long have donors been involved in Botswana, and would they say that now they have achieved a certain level? Let's say concerning technical skills or conceptual skills, are we not going to say at a certain stage that this country is self-sufficient as well as technical skills are concerned. Do we teach them how to eat fish and not how to fish? Thank you.

**Audience Member:** There are two points which I would encourage people to look into the changes that is taking place in Uganda with respect to education. Very interestingly, we have just started free education, primary education, at the grass[roots] level for the first four years. How this will involve in terms of resources, we don't know. What we know is that it is a difficult task. So I encourage researchers, donors, to go and visit and see what changes are going on vis-a-vis education in Uganda.

Regarding paying more money to teachers, which is been coming now and then, I would like to give you also the experience we have had in Uganda. We started what is called a PTA, parent-teacher associations, and we collected money and we used part of that money to add to the salaries of teachers. Very difficult, because you are doing it only to a section of the community, only to teachers. What about the other people in the services? You've got to think of that as well. But when we wanted to implement that, one question that arose is the effectiveness of this teachers' salary increase. I encourage people to get the experience of Uganda that in trying to find out the success of this, the teachers' wives were brought into play -- the wives of the teachers and the husbands of the teachers. And the answer regarding the increase of money was very varied. What the women wanted, that is, the wives of the teachers wanted was not just money. It was something more than just money. So I'd like you to go to Uganda and visit Uganda and try to find out what is going on. Thank you very much.

**Audience Member:** I have an experience with the University of Sierra Leone and Nairobi University as well. I used to teach at some of those universities, and because of that, I

visited a number of primary schools in those countries, not just working at universities. But I would like to raise a couple of questions and ask for your advice. First of all, talking about the qualification of teachers, many detailed requirements seems to be in place. Somebody from Zambia talked about unqualified teachers, but even an unqualified person, if he is well motivated and enthusiastic about teaching, I think, that would be more important. The top 5% of children in the 6th grade can teach properly reading and writing and math to the youngsters in the first grades like brothers and sisters. Maybe those older students can be used as assistant teachers, so to speak, for youngsters. Can't we think about the utilization of those youngsters? I think this probably is pertaining to deregulation in the area of education in a form.

Secondly, I would like to talk about Uganda. I understand in the rural areas, many of the teachers do not have pride or enthusiasm in being a teacher, and you need to encourage them. I would like to ask your opinion as to how to encourage teachers to be proud of themselves and be proud of their profession.

**Moderator:** Thank you very much. Would any of the panelists like to respond to the questions and comments made?

**Mr. Allsop:** Two quick points. The first one to our colleague from Zambia who was talking about the decline of quality. Just a warning. And that is that there never was a golden age of learning in Africa, in schooling in Africa, within our life times. You are not comparing like with like. You are reflecting on a time when you went to school in Africa where the percentage of children in school was very small. Now, we are trying to face the challenge of providing quality schooling for all children. So the equation is simply different. So any references about quality decline have to be very carefully phrased, in my view.

Teachers' qualifications and untrained teachers. If I could just give a small example from Ghana of how we are trying with the government in Ghana to change the position of primary teachers. I think it's an interesting model. At the moment in Ghana all teachers are trained nationally for primary schools, and they are all posted to schools by the central government. It creates a whole series of problems; demotivated teachers, teachers who do not wish to serve in the remote rural areas. I would not wish to teach in a remote rural primary school in Ghana, either. I wouldn't survive very long. What we are trying to do in six pilot districts is to give responsibility for the whole process of selection of teachers for training, the training, and then the posting of those teachers locally to the district level. And we believe that this is an important key to changing the motivation of teachers. Locally identified as suitable for training, being trained locally, and returning to their own local environment. It creates, we hope, a much more stable teaching force which is not constantly running off to the urban areas where the bright lights and the overcrowded

housing and all the other doubtful benefits of the urban environmental exist. It's only a model. Thank you.

**Ms. Kagia:** Let me make two quick comments one in response to Professor Sashamani. Zambia was left blank for a very good reason. I had so many issues listed there. I took them out, because it was looking imbalanced. As you know, there are real issues in education, some of which you have outlined, and I simply didn't get back to summarize them. But I agree with you. There are very major problems in Zambian education.

On the development of secondary education and the importance of secondary education, in order to get the full benefits of education, particularly for women, research evidence is unequivocal on that, and you do need to develop secondary school systems. But I think we are starting on the premise that unless basic education is broad-based, high quality, and equitable, then, what you do by developing secondary and tertiary first is planting the seeds for economic disequilibrium, so it is not a neither or situation we are talking about. It's a question of developing balanced educational systems and making sure that financial support to one subsector does not undermine support to other levels.

In response to Mr. Kilahoto's question about how long it takes to develop a country, my answer is that, one, I don't think any donor develops a country. The most any agency is going to be able to do no matter how effective it is, is to provide a very, very small portion of support. And you give a perfect example in quoting Botswana. Botswana is, as you can see from my table 5, receiving very little support from the World Bank or from most agencies, because it's doing very well on its own. The support it gets is usually in terms of policy advice, sharing knowledge and experiences. But the reason Botswana has moved that far is not because they have diamonds, although that has helped, it's not because it has a relatively small population of about one million and two million cattle, although that helps. But it's because they have very, very good economic management. They have some of the highest domestic savings anywhere in the world because they operate on a very simple principle, which says diamonds once mined are gone forever, so all the revenues they get from diamonds have been systematically saved for a time when there will be no diamonds, and that has created its own cycle. What I am saying is that if a country is well managed, then, what you get from external partners goes much farther. And it is in that context, I believe that Japan's strategy for support includes good governance, because we have seen good money go after bad in countries where there has been poor management of the economy. And we have also seen even within the Africa region, very little in the way of amount of resources going very far, because it is effectively utilized. Thank you.

**Ms. Diallo:** You know, His Excellency said that teachers do not want to teach right. Here, it is very important that the teacher be recognized as giving something valuable, so the

community should be sensitized to support the school. And I always say that the day in Africa, education will be as popular as a football, then education will be it, and all teachers would like to be football players.

**Mr. Sack:** I'd just like to [support] the point that Ruth Kagia made about good governance and the importance of good governance in development and the effective use of resources from donor agencies. And here you also could extend the notion of good governance to the agencies themselves, and include in the good governance, that is, the effective allocation of resources, the extreme importance of coordination, of effective coordination amongst agencies whatever form the coordination takes. Also for the information of Mr. Ambassador, your Minister of Education is very active in ADEA. He is a member of our steering committee and has been very active in all of our councils.

**Mr. Utsumi:** So this is an excellent opportunity for people to present their views, but I wanted to give the chance and opportunities to people who have traveled long distances to come to participate in this panel discussion. So I have been refraining from speaking. But I am getting quite frustrated, so I will start saying.

I was in Guatemala, doing a joint project with the United States to get girl children to go to school. And in Guatemala, the language is Spanish, but the Maya Indians, the indigenous people, only speak the Mayan language, and so to teach them you have to use the Mayan language as the language of instruction. To do that, UNICEF and DGZ, say that bilateral education, that is, teaching in the Mayan language as well as in the Spanish language, this sort of bilateral education is creating a specific area in Guatemala where people can live only speaking in the Mayan language. This is in the true sense of the bicultural, or bilingual society. But USAID says that is not the case. Bicultural education means assimilating these Mayan children into the Spanish speaking culture and language, so that they can live using the Spanish language, that that is their concept of bilateral, bicultural education. So this is the conflict of views. When we talk about assisting people, how do we cope with those different views from the top or from above? What sort of objectives or aims are we going to espouse?

Now, we have to look at what's happening here in Japan. We do have minorities here in Japan, and what sort of education have we been giving to the minorities? Well, through my Guatemala experience, it struck to my heart, that I had neglected this minority language issue here in Japan. I think it is time for us here in Japan to think about what sort of education we can give to Japanese minorities. Only by doing that, can we talk about giving quality education to, for example, Sub-Saharan countries.

**Moderator:** I am sure that you still have comments and questions, but our time is up, so we will

have to close this session. We've had a very wide ranging discussion today, and it is impossible really to summarize all the discussions. I know that each participant has absorbed important ideas from it.

However, to summarize briefly, basic education in Africa cannot be done by one single organization or agency. We need the cooperation of many agencies in coordination of projects. Also the south-south cooperation. That again is another issue in Sub-Saharan countries, and I heard some very encouraging remarks from the African participants on this issue. Of course, north-south cooperation is important, but south-south cooperation is also important. All the ideas that we have received in the discussion today, I am sure we will be making best use of it in implementing and devising or formulating our programs. I hope that this will complete my role as a moderator of this session. Thank you for your cooperation.

## **CLOSING ADDRESS**

**Mr. Kazutoshi Iwanami**

Managing Director

Institute for International Cooperation

Japan International Cooperation Agency

I would like to thank you very much for your very active participation in the discussions today. We have heard a number of opinions and recommendations today. We would like to keep all these opinions and recommendations in mind in carrying out our future work at JICA.

This Institute for International Cooperation (IFIC) realizes various activities, for example, like this occasion, to organize the seminar inviting experts related to international cooperation and knowledgeable, experienced representatives of academia, to train Japanese educational experts expected to be engaged in overseas technical cooperation in the future, to accept educational administrators in the African countries for training in Japan, and to research and study in the field of education and Sub-Saharan Africa.

The current year, we are realizing the research and studies on the real situation of the basic education in Sub-Saharan African countries and possibility to Japanese supports on the education.

We would like to make use to efficient assistance of the precious results of this seminar.

Now, I would like you to give a big hand again to the panelists on the stage, and also the chairperson. Also, we have had great cooperation and assistance from different people and different organizations in organizing and implementing this seminar, so I would like to thank all these people who have given us their cooperation. At the same time, to you, the audience, thank you very much for your participation. This concludes this seminar. Thank you.

Appendix

## **APPENDIX**

## Profile of Panelists

### Ms. Aïcha Bah Diallo

Nationality : Guinea  
Present Position : Director of Basic Education, UNESCO  
Professional Career : Minister of Education (Guinea)  
Chief of Cabinet of the Department of Planning and International Cooperation  
Director of International Relations and Projects in the Department of Social Affairs  
Headmistress of High School  
Teacher in High School  
Education : B.A. (Chemistry), Pennsylvania State University  
M.Sc. (Biochemistry), University of Conakry



### Mr. Seiji Utsumi

Nationality : Japan  
Present Position : Professor, Faculty of Human Sciences, Osaka University  
International Cooperation Advisor, Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture  
Previous Position : 1986-96 Development Specialist of Education, JICA  
1989-91 Chief Advisor, project for Promotion of Population Education, Turkey  
1984-87 Chief of Audio Visual Technology Course, Okinawa International Center, JICA  
1981-84 Lecturer, Regional Center for Science and Math.(RECSAM), South East Asia Minister of Education Organization(SEAMEO), Malaysia  
Education : B.A. Agriculture, Kyoto University  
B.A. Education, Kyoto University



### Ms. Ruth Kagia

Nationality : Kenya  
Present Position : Technical Manager, Human Development, Eastern and Southern Africa, World Bank  
Professional Career : 1994-96 Senior Education Specialist, East Asia and Pacific, World Bank  
1990-94 Education Specialist, Southern Africa, World Bank  
Education : M.Ed Harvard Graduate School of Education  
B.A. Education, University of Nairobi  
Certificate in Education Tests and Measurements, Princeton University



**Mr. Richard Sack**

Nationality : U.S.A.  
Present Position : Executive Secretary, Association for the  
Development of Education in Africa  
Professional Career : 1981-95 Independent consultant (working for the  
World Bank, UNESCO, USAID, etc.)  
Education : Ph.D. International Development Education, minor  
in sociology, Stanford University  
B.A. (Chemistry), University of Pennsylvania



**Mr. Terry Allsop**

Nationality : British  
Present Position : Senior Education Adviser, Overseas Development  
Administration (ODA)  
Professional Career : 1978-95 Lecturer in Educational Studies,  
University of Oxford  
1975-78 Coordinator, Oxford Schools Science &  
Technology Center  
1971-75 Lecturer in Education, Hong King  
University  
Education: B.A. Natural Science, Cambridge University  
Postgraduate Certificate in Education, Cambridge University



**Mr. Nobutake Odano**

Nationality : Japan  
Present Position : Managing Director, Planning Department, JICA  
Professional Career : 1989-90 Minister, Deputy Chief of Mission,  
Embassy of Japan, Yangon, Myanmar  
1990-93 Counselor, Embassy of Japan, Bonn,  
Germany  
1989-90 Counselor, Embassy of Japan, London  
1989-90 Senior visiting Research Fellow, Royal  
Institute of International Affairs, London  
Education : B.A. Economics, Keio University, Japan



**Ms. Yumiko Yokozeki**

Nationality : Japan  
Present Position : Development Specialist of Education, JICA  
Professional Career : 1986-88 Assistant Program Officer (Education),  
UNICEF Zimbabwe  
1982-85 Teacher(Science &Math.), Catholic  
Ancillary Teachers of Rural Zimbabwe  
(CATORUZI)  
Education: Ph.D. Institute of Education, University of London  
M.Ed, Harvard Graduate School of Education  
B.A. (Education), International Christian University

